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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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EDUCATION AND MODERN TECHNOLOGY

IN HIS fifth *Annual Report to the Board of Trustees* of the Educational Testing Service, President Henry Chauncey deals at some length with the topic of "Education and Modern Technology." He sees major changes in the role of the teacher if technological advances and possibilities in television and other audio-visual methods are properly utilized. Since technological as well as theoretical advances are resisted in almost every field, from glass-blowing to clinical psychology, there is no reason to expect that Mr. Chauncey's ideas will be accepted eagerly by teachers. These ideas are, however, sufficiently provocative to warrant repeating here.

Even more important than the need for "exemplar" programs that will serve to show the kind of contribution that educational television can make to education, is the need for advance planning concerning

the over-all role of educational television in education. The question of the optional role for educational television is still very much a matter for study and experimentation, but it is necessary to note that study and experimentation, even of the finest scientific caliber, will not suffice to provide the best answers if we do not pose the right kinds of questions. To ask only how educational television and similar technological advances can best supplement present educational efforts, is to lose by default all those potentialities of the new developments which emerge for consideration if we ask instead how they may be utilized in *their fullest possible impact*, unfettered by what has been done in the past.

Some suggestions to this effect were made in last year's *Annual Report*—specifically, that sound films, educational television, and similar media might be used to relieve the classroom teacher of the more routine aspects of the instructional job, freeing her to devote primary attention to the work of personalizing and individualizing instruction. In this connection, I pointed out that as the teaching job is presently organized, teaching is losing out to other fields in the competition for very able people; that at-

tempts at more rigorous selection are unrealistic, in the face of mounting teacher-shortages; and that the teaching job itself might be made more challenging, more remunerative, and more attractive to very able people by changing it in such a way as to make better use of the teacher's time and abilities.

Of the many responses these suggestions evoked, by far the largest proportion indicated that they had been well received and had, in fact, led in a number of quarters to constructive consideration of how they might best be implemented. A very few, however, were of such nature as to make it clear that the suggestions had been misconstrued as an attempt to replace the teacher with "mechanical aids," or to lower the teacher's status and professional responsibility.

Since teacher-shortages are even more severe this year than last and bid fair to become progressively more serious during the next several years, I should like to examine further the solution to the problem that was suggested in last year's *Annual Report*, with particular reference to its implications for the teacher's role.

The weight of evidence from research studies conducted over the past thirty-five years indicates beyond any reasonable doubt that, for purposes of imparting factual knowledge and demonstrating concepts to students, suitable instructional films are more effective than poor instructors and at least as effective as the average instructor. The available evidence indicates, too, that not only substantive content and the intellectual kinds of skills, but also fairly complex perceptual-motor skills, can be successfully taught by films. Further, the findings show that the use of films serves to reduce instruction time considerably, and that the effectiveness of films is even more pronounced as an aid to retention than to immediate learning. . . .

It would appear, also, that instruction by television is equivalent in effectiveness

to instruction by sound films, and that any claims that can be made for the older medium will apply about equally well to the newer one. Televised instruction is, of course, a much more recent subject for research than instructional films, but to date the findings appear very favorable. . . .

However, it is important to note that not all films are necessarily good teaching devices. Their effectiveness depends on how well their content is related to the particular instructional objectives that are involved, and on how well the manner of presentation is suited to the intelligence, educational level, and previous training of the students. (For example, one of the Pennsylvania State College Instructional Film Research studies involved the use of a sound film to teach Navy trainees how to assemble the breechblock of a 40 mm. anti-aircraft gun. With the film originally available for this purpose, only some 40 per cent of the trainees were able to assemble the breechblock after seeing the film; with the film finally developed after considerable experimentation, 98 per cent of a similar group of Navy trainees were able to assemble the breechblock after seeing the film.) This does not vitiate the conclusions concerning the value of instructional films, and similar media, but merely underlines the importance of insuring that the films or television programs are suited to the particular instructional objectives involved and to the particular group with whom they are to be used.

Now, to state that students can learn as much from suitably prepared sound films or televised presentations as they can from conventional classroom instruction is not to say that instructional films or television can be used to do away with the classroom teacher. This would follow only if it were true that the teacher's sole function, or sole important function, was that of imparting factual information and demonstrating concepts. And that is by no means true—although the burden with which the teacher is

now saddled undoubtedly tends both to obscure the nature of her real function and to prevent her from giving adequate attention to it.

As Learned and Wood state in *The Student and His Knowledge* (The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938, p. 68):

"Much of the information imparted in the school or college classroom is, as it were, intellectual lumber. Essential to construction, it has today become readily available for almost any subject in a hundred forms. The student is both designer and builder. He must procure the lumber, fit it to his needs, and incorporate it in the structure. The teacher is the consulting architect. He extends the builder's vision through criticism and example, co-ordinating the structure's functions and parts, and pointing out the best models. He has been too long and too often mistaken for a purveyor of the builder's supplies."

This statement was made fifteen years ago, but it seems equally applicable today. Confronted with thirty or more students of widely varying abilities and interests, the elementary classroom teacher does what she can to take the more obvious differences among the youngsters into account in her work with them, but the necessity for carrying the entire instructional burden forces her to be oriented most of the time to the group as a whole. The amount of differentiation she can make in her treatment of the highly advanced pupil in any instructional area, as contrasted with the poor or mediocre one, is sharply limited.

The same appears to hold—though possibly to a lesser extent—at the secondary level also. For example, in a publication earlier this year ("Some Unresolved Problems of Secondary Education," *The North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. XXVII, No. 3, January, 1953) Chancellor Thomas R. McConnell of the University of Buffalo discusses limitations of customary classroom teaching and recitation procedures, so

far as providing adequate differentiation and individualization for either the less or the more able students is concerned, and goes on to point out:

"By and large, however, teacher-training institutions do not give prospective teachers practice in this kind of individualized structure. *In spite of having students read textbook chapters on individual differences and on individualizing instruction, the stress is placed on group teaching.*" (Italics mine.)

But consider what might be done if the *group teaching* aspects of instruction were given over to sound films or similar media: courses could be planned and prepared by committees of outstanding teachers in conjunction with audio-visual education experts, pretesting their efforts for instructional effectiveness and for suitability to the group with whom they were to be used. There could be more advanced or "enriched" treatments for the more able students; less advanced or "spoon-fed" treatments for the less able ones. Workbooks and tests designed to correlate optimally with these courses could also be prepared by the same committees. If all of these were placed at the teacher's disposal, and the record-keeping, test-scoring, and similar chores given over to a clerical assistant, the teacher's job would become one of planning the best combination of educational experiences for each student and making sure that he was getting what he could and should be getting from his experiences. She would, in short, function as observer, guide, and mentor, in the fullest sense of those terms—a role which is now buried under a welter of other and less essential functions.

If the teacher's time were utilized exclusively in *personalizing* and *individualizing* instruction, it would also (as suggested in last year's *Annual Report*) be feasible for her to oversee and guide the development of a much larger group of pupils than at present—quite possibly the equivalent of three present classroom groups. In other words, if the teacher were relieved of both

the *group teaching* aspects of instruction and the routine clerical and "monitor" chores she must now perform, she would—in fact—be freed to function as a "consulting architect" rather than as a "purveyor of intellectual lumber." And where she now performs the latter function for some thirty students, she might be able to serve as "consulting architect" for two or three times that number.

This does not mean that the job would be an easy one, or that it could be filled by anyone but a person of very high professional competence as a teacher, well equipped in mastery of subject matter and in the specialized techniques required for observing, appraising, stimulating, and guiding the growth of individual students. The new type of arrangement proposed would not only make it possible for the teacher to function during the largest part of her working day at a level of skill, ability, and insight which she has too little opportunity to reach at present, but would *demand* that she function at this level.

MORE TECHNOLOGY

PERIODIC MEETINGS of scholars, professional workers, or members of a particular craft can probably be traced back to the Middle Ages. However, the annual meeting of almost every recognizable occupational, professional, or scholarly group is undoubtedly an American contribution.

These conventions serve a distinctly social and recreative function; they serve as an employment mart; they offer one means by which the more active and mobile individuals become known to other members of the field; and they also serve as a means of communicating new ideas as well as reviving and reformulating old ideas. The availability of comfortable quarters,

adequate food and other refreshment, and random or other processes by which two or more members of the group may meet for brief or lengthy periods of communication undoubtedly serve all the functions enumerated in the foregoing. However, in most conventions the more formal communication of ideas is relegated to a very full program of speeches, panel presentations, and the reading of research reports.

Dissatisfaction with these formal programs may be seen in the earnest efforts being made by convention committees to explore new procedures. Perhaps the major problems to which these efforts are being directed is the lack of depth in the typical convention communication process and the increasing realization that communication of new ideas requires a great deal of activity on the part of the audience as well as the speaker.

One of the relatively successful convention patterns for improving the communication of ideas was illustrated by the Ninth National Conference on Higher Education held in Chicago during the first week of March, 1954. The program included a number of major speeches on topics which were considered to be of general interest. In addition to this part of the program, the conferees were divided into a large number of relatively small groups on the basis of expressed interest in some topic or question. Prior to the convention, a tentative program was distributed in which a large list of possible topics for discussion was presented.

Each topic was accompanied by a list of major questions posed by a specialist in the field, as well as a suggested bibliography. This tentative program gave each of the potential conferees some basis for determining the topic in which he was primarily interested and gave him an opportunity to make some prior preparation for consideration of the topic at the convention.

At the convention, each topic was considered by a group to which was attached one or more individuals considered to be an authority on the subject. A chairman and a recording secretary were also named. The specialist on the subject initiated the discussion by presenting a brief paper dealing with an overview of the problem or summarizing the research or other materials bearing on the problem. Then for the better part of one or two days, the topic was considered in some detail by the individuals who had elected to join the particular group. Mimeographed versions of the major speeches, the initial presentations of the specialists on each topic, and the summary of the group's deliberations on each topic were made available to all members of the conference before the convention was over.

These procedures were regarded as very effective by this writer. They enabled members of the conference to consider some topic in depth and at the same time to become acquainted, at least through the printed page, with the entire range of activities at the convention. Undoubtedly, many variations on these procedures could be

worked out. At the moment, however, the pattern of this convention is suggestive of a method for increasing the continuity and the depth, as well as the complexity, of the communication process at annual meetings of teachers and other groups.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

THE INCREASE in international exchange of students and specialists is highlighted in the Thirty-fourth Annual Report of the Institute of International Education.

The Institute, which celebrated its thirty-fifth birthday on February 1, 1954, administered programs for a total of 3,981 persons from 81 countries during 1953, according to the *Report*. In his Preface Mr. Kenneth Holland (the Institute's president) remarks on the growth of the organization. During its first year of operation, seven scholars from Western Europe visited the United States. In 1953, 2,259 foreign students, supported by funds from over 175 different sources, were brought to this country under Institute auspices. A total of 296 foreign specialists came to this country and 58 American specialists went abroad. Private grants for foreign study were awarded to 396 Americans, and 972 were recommended for Fulbright scholarships.

One of the Institute's new exchange programs is the small and highly selective program with Spain, the first major privately sponsored exchange between the U.S. and that country since 1939. Already nine Spanish stu-

dents have enrolled in U.S. institutions, and five Americans are studying in Spain. The first group of specialists to come to this country under the new program arrived in the United States on January 20.

With the aim of bringing foreign students and visitors into closer and more meaningful contact with the American community as a whole, the Institute's six regional offices widened the scope of their activities during 1953. In Chicago, Denver, Houston, Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Washington, D.C., staff members tried to personalize the Institute and its programs to local college officials and community leaders, to both American and foreign students.

Reporting on other 1953 developments, Mr. Holland lists the initial research on a *Handbook of International Study*, a basic work to be used by prospective candidates for foreign study and their advisers. He also announces the arrival in the United States of the first five recipients of scholarships from the Cordell Hull Foundation. Under this new program to promote understanding between our country and Latin America, five students from that area are now enjoying a year of academic training at American universities.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY

THIS IS A TIME of conflict over ideas and the freedom to express them, over institutions and their practices, and over basic social theories and policies. The conflict is especially severe at

the moment in education and centers on public versus private education and on content and method in education. Now more than usual we have need for a clear formulation of educational policy which sets the problems at a different level and in a different form from those of the present controversies, which are posed in a form that can only create claims and counterclaims.

One of the stormy petrels which sparked the educational controversies of the 1920's and 1930's was the Progressive Education Association. The monumental Eight-Year Study sponsored by the Association did much to arouse thought and alter practice in curriculum and testing. Currently, the Association is attempting to reformulate a policy for progressive education. One proposed statement of policy was authored by Harold Rugg, with the collaboration of a subcommittee (composed of Miles E. Cary, Isaac B. Berkson, and John J. Brooks) of the Association's New York Working Committee. Some of the major points in this statement, which appears in the November, 1953, issue of *Progressive Education*, should be of interest to educators whether or not they regard themselves as progressives:

Our new statement of policy is founded, therefore, on an appreciation of [the] achieved successes of child-centered education. On these we propose to build. But we can no longer be content with a child-centered program alone. For the educational frontier has moved on. Today we must undertake two tasks—one psychological, the other social.

We must continue to work on the psycho-

logical problem. We still lack a truly unified, organic theory of behavior, and, based upon it, a program of education for disciplined thought and imagination. However, in recent years advances have been made. A new and documented bio-psychology of behavior is now available to us, drawing its concepts and principles from the twentieth-century disciplines of the human sciences—a new physiology at one end of the range, a dynamic social psychology at the other and in addition the data from half a dozen schools of experimental psychology. Hence, besides profiting by our earlier psychological achievements we can now utilize the more recent findings on the psychological frontier and build a program of education on a more solidly grounded theory of human behavior, development, and learning.

Nevertheless, the major concern of our new statement of position is with the social aspects of our task, and to a large extent with the higher schools, where much concentration of effort is needed. We must learn how to use the school, in co-operation with all other educative institutions, in furthering the building of that life of physical and spiritual abundance and democratic behavior that is now potentially within the grasp of our people. We believe that this can be done, but only through the prolonged, universal education of young Americans, even to the age of twenty; and we believe, moreover, that this child-and-youth education must then be continued in a lifelong adult study of community, national, and world problems. . . .

Rugg then discusses the conditions and problems which he regards as the central imperatives of civilization and education today. He continues:

Not denying that the conflicts and tensions in our culture may perhaps be warning signs of a cultural disintegration, we affirm nevertheless that we have, with the help of a vastly improved education, the makings of a splendid new civilization. *We would*

make the re-integration of individual personality and of American culture the dynamic goal of our people's co-operative effort and the re-integration of education through the civilization-centered school its chief instrument. This is the positive thing for which we can fight.

Hence, we make the chief theme of our new Policy: *disciplined intelligence and imagination through rigorously disciplined materials.* As we in the progressive education movement re-form our ranks for the second and more mature stage of development, let us consider that there will be little of stirring interest to offer teachers and parents, *unless they can experience it in the deep excitement of intellectual, imaginative search.* In the light of the difficult, complex situation of contemporary life, tender regard for the child and humanitarian sentiment alone will not suffice. To re-integrate American culture through a civilization-centered education will require of many American teachers effortful, disciplined thought, creative imagination, and a mastery of the broad fields of twentieth-century knowledge. One of our major educational problems is to turn the new higher studies in the sciences and the arts of expression into a disciplined body of educative materials. The parallel problem is to learn how to use them in building in American youth competent understanding, habits of disciplined thinking and imagination *about modern man*, his changing industrial-democratic civilization and his personal and interpersonal behavior and his expression. In a truly civilization-centered school, language, literature, and mathematics, even the current versions, will constitute an important part, but still only one part, of the materials of scholarship. The science of society and culture, the bio-social-psychological science of human behavior, the bio-physical sciences, the arts of disciplined expression—all these must take their rightful places. . . .

Since a people's culture actually consists of the ongoing life of its communities, the better integration of American life can be

brought about only through its local communities. This clarifies another pressing task of progressive education today. For a generation many of our elders knew that they could not bring about permanent and far-reaching changes in the education of the young people unless they first carried with them the support of a strategic nucleus of the parents and citizens. In the advances of the first fifty years, two new concepts of "education and community" were put to work in the new schools. The first was *the school as a true community* of parents, children and youth, teachers and administrators; the second was *the community-centered school* which sought to get the community into the school and the school into the community. Their conceptual possibilities were far from being exhaustively explored, and there is no doubt that these can today profitably engage the creative energies of many of our teachers.

But the cue to our work in the coming years lies in the much deeper conception of *the education-centered community; education-centered*, not merely *school-centered*. It begins with the people of the community, makes the school the center of the rebuilding of their lives, and the living of the community the center of the life of the school. As more and more communities reach this mature stage of development, the people will understand that all the social processes of a democratic society *are* education, and they will more deliberately organize their government and other community enterprises in terms of education.

We would let the study-planning idea pervade everything educational, keying the evolving curriculum of school and college into the neighborhood and community group life. The people must know that a new and better life will be developed only as they do it. It is our function to help in organizing this study of modern life, beginning in a small way, building study-planning groups in those scattered towns and cities where our present dynamic leadership is located. Thus

we would build a new and imaginative conception of adult education as a slowly evolving, collaborative adventure. The plan and the eventual goal will embrace nothing less than a national network of town and neighborhood study-planning groups, ramifying across the country through a score of regional councils, each one overarching state and metropolitan, village and town councils.

Each one will be a small, intimate, hard-working group of a few dedicated persons, and in each *the group-process will be omnipresent*. Whenever two or twenty literate disciplined men foregather, the dialectic of group study takes place. Back and forth it moves, a listening-talking-listening, interactive, forward-moving process. But there is always the play of the dual safeguards; *first*, clear documentation—the discipline of fact, *second*, clear logic—the discipline of conceptual thought. The product of the group process is creative consensus. A new concept emerges, deeper, more profound, than any individual has held before. Thus it is that the art of disciplined study and discussion builds intelligence among men.

BENJAMIN S. BLOOM

INTERESTING FOOTNOTES IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

THE SCHOOL REVIEW is indebted to Ellsworth Tompkins, specialist for large high schools, and Galen Jones, director of the Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch of the State and Local School Systems Division, both in the United States Office of Education, for the following interesting item.

In the process of doing research on a variety of problems and issues in American education, an investigator is frequently brought up with a start by reason of uncovering items other than those for which

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he was searching. It is sometimes pointed out by critics that great poets have not always written great poems, nor great composers great music. We would infer from some of the items we have found that august conferences and high-minded educators have not always come up with suggestions that are later considered "significant."

While looking over a few thousand pages of original source materials on school-college relationships, the writers have unexpectedly encountered certain practices and comments that either interested or amused them, or both. It is possible that others might be similarly intrigued by the following items.

1. Up to 1872 the Master of Arts degree could be obtained from Harvard College on payment of five dollars by a graduate of that institution, provided three years had elapsed after he received his Bachelor of Arts degree. No other requirements had to be met.

2. A resolution of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements of the National Education Association, passed in 1899, recommended that all high schools consist of six grades and that all six grades (VII through XII) be housed in one building. It was believed that a "unified high-school" course would add to the effectiveness and solidarity of secondary education and that six elementary grades and six high-school grades formed "symmetrical" units. Furthermore, the Committee concurred that a gradual change to "this system" would probably lead to the establishment of a large number of less expensive high schools.

3. In 1907, 85 colleges in America had total yearly incomes from \$1,000 to \$10,000; 144 institutions of higher education had annual incomes between \$10,000 and \$25,000. Practically all the professors at these small colleges earned less than \$1,000 annually.

4. Examinations conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board were begun in 1901. Examination papers submitted by candidates from 1901 to 1910

revealed a steady decline in marks given by readers. For example, in the range 90-100, the number of papers so marked decreased steadily from 7.1 to 3.4 per cent. The College Board took cognizance of the tendency toward lower marks and concluded that several factors were influencing the results: the examinations in some fields were becoming too difficult; the number of colleges admitting candidates by certificate was increasing; the preparation of students was not as good as formerly; promotion in high school was increasingly based on actual classroom work rather than written examinations, so that students were losing an ability to write examination papers. At any rate, the Board called the situation to its readers' attention. Thereafter, in 1911, 1912, and 1913, the per cent of students earning 90-100 on examination papers increased to 3.6, 5.6, and 6.5, respectively. A study of examination fields from 1901 to 1913 discloses that papers of candidates consistently earned highest average rank in mathematics, second highest in Greek, and lowest in English and history.

5. The first teacher-exchange program between the United States and another nation was begun in 1908 at the request of the Minister of Education of Prussia to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in America. Under the sponsorship of the Foundation, the exchange program continued successfully up to the beginning of World War I. Prussian teachers coming to this country were to offer supplementary instruction and not to take the place of a regular teacher. The American teachers were to instruct Prussian students in English, also informally. The inauguration of the exchange precipitated a discussion in German and English periodicals as to whether American teachers were actually fit to teach the English language [Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *Third Annual Report*, pp. 47-49. New York: The Foundation, 1908].

6. The first paid advertising by any college in America occurred in 1870 when Har-

vard College bought space in the February issue of the *Atlantic Monthly* to extol the virtues of the Cambridge institution in the hope of securing more students.

7. The first college to offer graduate courses in the arts and sciences was Yale College, and it did so in 1846.

8. Admission to college with conditions was common in the early 1900's. Many colleges accepted as students those who failed to fulfil the regular requirements for admission so that the students might not lose a year's time and the college might have more students. For example, in 1907, out of 697 students admitted directly from secondary schools into the Freshman class at Yale College, 391 were conditioned in one or more subjects. Some figures for other colleges were: Harvard, admitted 607, conditioned 352; Princeton, 360 and 201; University of Illinois, 482 and 218.

9. The founder and donor of Leland Stanford University specified that no part of his gift should be spent in advertising.

10. The first full-time admissions officer in an American college was appointed at Columbia University in 1909.

11. In 1902 the report of the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association, recommended that a portion of Saturday morning should be regularly used for high-school laboratory work in the scientific studies. Laboratory work requires more consecutive time than the ordinary period of recitation affords; so that an hour and a half is about the shortest advantageous period for laboratory exercise. Further, the Committee urged that, in addition to regular school sessions, one afternoon in every school week should be used for out-of-door instruction in botany, geography, zoölogy, and geology.

12. The faculty of Harvard College began discussion of college-entrance requirements in 1883, and much of their discussion revolved around the position of Greek in the requirements. A majority of the faculty agreed that "there can be a liberal education

without Greek" but insisted that in liberal training no modern language could supplant Greek as a means of developing the powers of thought and expression and of broadening the mind. The faculty voted to consent to the substitution of advanced mathematics or science for Greek but would not agree to substitute a modern language for Greek, as that would be "the substitution of an inferior for a better training in language."

13. A candidate for Princeton in 1870 had to be able to read Sallust, while a candidate for Harvard did not need Sallust but did need a knowledge of Greek and Roman history not required at Princeton. College requirements differed so greatly from institution to institution that a secondary school was faced with the necessity of preparing each student for a particular college.

14. The National College of Osteopathic Physicians and Surgeons, which possessed a charter from the District of Columbia and could grant professional degrees in physiology, pathology, neurology, psychology, ophthalmology, applied anatomy, and many other specialized medical sciences, certified in 1907 that its total assets consisted of the following:

Seal.....	\$ 7.50
Printed matter.....	30.00
Diplomas.....	140.00
Furniture.....	95.00
Grand total...	\$272.50

15. York College in Nebraska announced in 1913 that anyone donating "\$50,000 shall have the privilege of giving the institution a new and permanent name." (Its name, however, is still York.)

ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON READING

THE Seventeenth Annual Conference on Reading will be held at the University of Chicago from June 29 through July 2, 1954. The confer-

ence theme is "Promoting Maximal Reading Growth among Able Learners." Attention will be focused on the reading needs of all persons above the average in potential achievement and on ways in which schools may meet these needs. In planning the conferences, special consideration is given to the problems faced at the secondary-school level.

In the opening session the social significance and goals of the education of able learners will be examined by Newton Edwards, of the Universities of Chicago and South Carolina. His presentation will be followed by an examination of the basic issues and problems in reading instruction for capable students, presented by Ruth Strang, Teachers College, Columbia University. The nature of mature reading will be explored by William S. Gray, University of Chicago. The subsequent general sessions on June 29 and 30 will be concerned with the following topics:

Distinctive Characteristics of Able Learners, JACOB W. GETZELS, University of Chicago

Types of School and Class Organization: Their Advantages and Limitations, EDITH SHERMAN JAY, Wayne University

Flexible Grouping as an Aid to Maximal Reading Progress, ANGELA M. BROENING, Director of Publications, Baltimore Public Schools

Following each of the foregoing sessions, separate sectional meetings will be held for junior high school teachers and for teachers in senior high schools and junior colleges. The following problems will be considered:

Identification of Superior Learners

In Grades VII-IX, RUTH MACK, Psychologist, Bureau of Child Study, Chicago Public Schools

In Grades X-XIV, JULIAN C. STANLEY, University of Wisconsin

Specific Patterns of Classroom Organization

In Grades VII-IX, MARION ALLEN, Reading Consultant, Forest Hill Village Schools, Toronto, Canada

In Grades X-XIV, JAMES M. MCCALLISTER, Dean, Chicago City Junior College, Herzl Branch

Adapting the Organization to Varying Needs

In Grades VII-IX, ALEC TURNER, Supervising Principal, Etobicoke Township Schools, Toronto, Canada

In Grades X-XIV, ROBERT H. CARPENTER, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois

On July 1 and 2 the emphasis will be placed on methods and materials to promote growth in reading and through the use of reading. The general session topics and speakers will be as follows:

Principles for Selecting Methods and Materials To Promote Growth *in* Reading, MARVIN D. GLOCK, Cornell University

Principles for Selecting Methods and Materials To Promote Growth *through* Reading, HAROLD A. ANDERSON, University of Chicago

The Publisher's Responsibility To Provide Materials for Able Learners, WALTER BRACKMAN, Editor-in-chief, Row, Peterson and Company, Evanston, Illinois

Reading for Personal Development, ALICE BROOKS MCGUIRE, Casis School, Austin, Texas

Improving Reading Interests and Independent Reading, PAUL WITTY, Northwestern University

Each of these presentations will be followed by sectional meetings:

Techniques for Increasing Interpretation and Reactions to What Is Read

In Grades VII-IX, MILDRED C. LETTON, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In Grades X-XIV, VERA A. HOYMAN, University High School, Illinois State Normal University

Materials and Procedures To Develop Reading Efficiency in Social Studies

In Grades VII-IX, IRENE HANLEY, Hinsdale Junior High School, Hinsdale, Illinois

In Grades X-XIV, ROBERT E. KEOHANE, Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois

Materials and Procedures To Develop Reading Efficiency in Natural Sciences

In Grades VII-IX, MARY KAY CULVER, Public Schools, Springfield, Illinois

In Grades X-XIV, GEORGE G. MALLINSON, Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan

Materials and Procedures To Develop Reading Efficiency in Mathematics

In Grades XII-IX, GLADYS JUNKER, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

In Grades X-XIV, ADELE LEONHARDY, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri

Methods of Stimulating and Guiding Personal Reading

In Grades VII-IX, MABEL S. BOULDIN, Phillips High School, Chicago

In Grades X-XIV, ISABEL KINCHELOE, Chicago Teachers College

Of special interest to heads of departments, principals, and superintendents will be the administrative and supervisory section, concerned with these topics:

Promoting Understandings Basic to Identification of Able Learners, SYLVIA C. KAY, Principal, Lloyd School, Chicago

Specific Patterns of Classroom Organization, HELEN R. POWELL, Wayne University

Adapting the Organization to Varying Needs, WARREN C. SEYFERT, Director, Laboratory School, University of Chicago

Responsibility of the Administrator for Promoting Increased Interpretation and Reaction to What Is Read, GEORGE W. HOHL, Director of Elementary Education, Public Schools, Des Moines, Iowa

Providing Materials and Identifying Procedures To Develop Reading Efficiency in Content Areas, DAISY M. JONES, Director of Elementary Education, Public Schools, Richmond, Indiana

Parental Co-operation in a Program for Able Learners, PAUL HILL, Psychologist, Public Schools, Winnetka, Illinois

Promoting Guidance and Stimulation in Personal Reading, MARGARET HAYES, University of Chicago

All teachers, librarians, administrative officers, and others interested in the foregoing problems are cordially invited to attend the conference. Copies of the program and detailed information concerning fees, rooming facilities, and registration procedures may be secured from Mrs. Helen M. Robinson, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

APPLYING RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

SUPERINTENDENTS, principals, and teachers are increasingly conscious of the need to apply research findings to the practical daily affairs of school systems. The Midwest Administration Center, a center of the Cooperative Program in Educational Ad-

ministration located at the University of Chicago, will sponsor a conference at the University on July 19-23, 1954, which is designed to demonstrate how research can be translated into action. It will deal with the topic "Applying Research in Educational Administration." Emphasis will be placed on the implications of research for personnel administration, public relations in education, the use of outside resources by schools, and planning designed to attain educational objectives. Concise reviews of the major findings of current research in these areas will be presented. Small discussion groups aided by consultants and resource persons will apply these findings to problems

and questions submitted in advance by the participants.

The conference is open to superintendents, principals, teachers, and school-board members. Registration will be limited to 140 persons. No charge other than a registration fee of one dollar will be made for participation. Housing facilities for those who desire them will be available on the University campus at a nominal charge.

Additional information regarding the conference may be obtained from William W. Savage, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by BENJAMIN S. BLOOM, professor of education and university examiner at the University of Chicago. ERNA HAMLISH, instructor in the Department of Home Economics and teacher in the Nursery School, Michigan State College, and EUGENE L. GAIER, research associate in the Training Research Laboratory of the Department of Psychology of the University of Illinois, present a study which seeks to determine the relation that similarities of personalities of students and teachers have on the assignment of low and high marks. JEAN FAIR, an examiner in the Examiner's Office at the University of Chicago, in the first of two articles, describes a core and a conventional program with respect to objectives, content studied, evaluation procedure, and the like, in preparation for a comparison (to be published in a second article) of the effectiveness of the two programs in teaching social concern. B. EVERARD BLANCHARD, professor of education at Plymouth Teachers College, Plymouth, New Hampshire, reports the results of a questionnaire study to ascertain the attitudes which a group of secondary-school pupils had toward student teachers with respect to personal appearance, ability to explain lessons, fairness in marking, and the like. JOHN M. BECK, on the facul-

ty of the Department of Education, Chicago Teachers College, presents a historical report of the positions taken by, and the influence of, Chicago newspapers in reference to public education during 1890-1920. CLINTON R. WISEMAN, head of the Department of Education, South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, brings up to date his study on college-entrance credits in science and in mathematics offered by Freshman students entering his institution. J. W. GETZELS, assistant professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago, and KENNETH D. NORBERG, associate professor of education and co-ordinator of audio-visual services at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California, present a list of selected references on educational psychology.

Reviewers of books EDNA LUE FURNESS, associate professor of education, University of Wyoming. PAUL W. HARNLY, assistant superintendent in charge of secondary education, Wichita, Kansas. V. HOWARD TALLEY, associate professor of music, University of Chicago. FRANCIS F. POWERS, dean, College of Education, University of Washington. GERTRUDE A. BOYD, associate professor of guidance education, University of Wyoming.

TEACHER-STUDENT PERSONALITY SIMILARITIES AND MARKS

ERNA HAMLISH
Michigan State College

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University of Illinois



IMPLICIT in much of the literature on scholastic attainment is the view that college success is independent of the interaction of the personalities of both teacher and student. While the proportions of skill, human qualities, and personality necessary for academic success vary, it is here suggested that the personality factor plays a decisive role. On the assumption that personality is involved in teacher-student relations and that communication is facilitated by understanding the other person's frame of reference, this article reports an exploratory investigation to determine whether the similarities in character orientation between teachers and students affect the marking of the students by the teachers.

THE PROBLEM

The purpose of the present study was to determine whether the effects of personality and interpersonal relations between teacher and students are systematically related to the teacher's marking of the students. If similarities in personality are related

to the assignment of marks, the following hypotheses should be sustained:

1. Students receiving high marks will describe themselves in terms more like those used by the teacher to describe himself than will students receiving low marks.
2. Teachers will describe students receiving high marks more often in terms of their own (teachers') self-descriptions than they will so describe students receiving low marks.
3. High-ranking students' concepts of teachers' ratings will be more like the teachers' actual ratings than will be the concepts of low-ranking students.
4. Teachers' ratings of high-ranking students will more often be similar to the students' self-descriptions than will the teachers' descriptions of low-ranking students.

SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURE

Two instructors of education, both women, and eight students under their supervision in a course in student teaching served as subjects. The students, all girls, ranged from Sophomore to Senior standing at a midwestern teachers' college.

After each teacher had assigned the semester's course marks, she was asked to rate each student on the basis

of her observation of the student's teaching ability and participation in the several conferences held during the semester. A personality index was employed to obtain a measure of character orientation of the students and their perception of each other.

Each teacher was then asked to describe herself, by sorting the statements of the index, as she perceived herself to be and then to describe the two students with the highest and the lowest marks in the course. Each student was asked to describe herself as she actually perceived herself to be and also as she thought the teacher perceived her. The data were not collected until the end of the semester so that the full time of the semester might be utilized for the teacher-student relation to develop.

CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY USED HERE

Personality is discussed in this paper in terms of Fromm's¹ concept of character orientation, where character is conceived in terms of the individual's relatedness to the world both (a) by acquiring and assimilating things and (b) by relating himself to people and himself. It is assumed that the fundamental entity in character is not a single trait but is rather the total organization from which a number of character traits follow. In other words, these character traits are conceptualized to be a syndrome resulting from a unique organization called "character orientation."

¹ Erich Fromm, *Man for Himself*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1947.

The productive orientation is conceived as a fundamental attitude, a mode of relatedness pervading all realms of human experience. The non-productive orientation, however, is subdivided into four categories: (a) receptive, (b) exploitative, (c) hoarding, and (e) marketing. Describing these categories in terms of their negative aspects, Fromm notes:

Both the receptive and the exploitative attitudes result in a kind of intimacy and closeness to people from whom one expects to get the things needed either peacefully or aggressively. In the receptive attitude, the dominant relationship is a submissive, masochistic one. . . . The exploitative attitude, on the other hand, implies usually a sadistic kind of relationship. . . .

In contrast to both these attitudes, the hoarding kind of relatedness implies remoteness from the other persons. It is based not on the expectation of getting things from an outside source of all good but on the expectation of having things by not consuming and by hoarding. . . . The hoarding character will tend to solve the problem of his relationship to others by attempting to withdraw or—if the outside world is felt to be too great a menace—to destroy.

The marketing orientation is also based on detachment from others, but in contrast to the hoarding orientation, the detachment has a friendly rather than a destructive connotation. The whole principle of the marketing orientation implies easy contact, superficial attachment, and detachment from others only in a deeper emotional sense.²

While one orientation may be dominant in an individual, his personality is usually described in terms of blends, since character rarely represents one

² *Ibid.*, pp. 111-12.

exclusive orientation. In determining the dominant orientation, it becomes necessary to blend the nonproductive orientations among themselves and consider the respective weight of each. This establishes the profile of the individual, but the quality of his personality will vary with the amount of productiveness.

METHOD

A personality inventory developed by Porter³ was employed to obtain an index of character orientation. Based on Fromm's concept of character orientation, this inventory consists of twenty-four statements describing the behavior of the nonproductive orientations. A series of three types of items are included to describe the behavior typical of each orientation: (a) the social-stimulus item, describing behavior in the same terms as it is experienced; (b) a statement of inner values congruent with the behavior; and (c) a statement of the presumed emotional impact which the characteristic behavior will have on others.

Six statements are included for each of the four orientations, two for each type of item, one having a positive and the other a negative aspect. That is, in describing the behavior for each orientation, there are both positive and negative social-stimulus values, inner-value items, and emotional-impact items. For example, the behavior of

the receptive orientation is described by the following statements:

INNER VALUE

Positive.—Feels he works best when working with other people. Finds others helpful, interesting, and worth while.

Negative.—Feels his friends are more able, intelligent, and experienced than he is in knowing what to do.

SOCIAL STIMULUS

Positive.—Cheerful, friendly, modest, optimistic, and trusting with others.

Negative.—Expresses his opinions so as not to offend others and is usually willing to try out other people's ideas first.

EMOTIONAL IMPACT

Positive.—Makes others feel more worth while and well regarded.

Negative.—Feels that others get annoyed with him because he bothers them and asks too much of them.

A group of these statements, constructed for each of the four orientations, was presented to each subject, who was asked to sort them in order from statements "most like" the person she was describing to those "least like" that person. By comparing the relative rank order of the statements, the character orientation of the described individual can be assessed. From a record of the index, it is also possible to obtain a short profile which describes the person rated in terms of the orientations she is most and least like. By comparing the rank order of the individual items on two sorts and the profiles of the two sorts, it is then possible to obtain the similarities and the differences between any two per-

³ E. H. Porter, Jr., "Personal Therapy as an Adjunct to Training in Psychotherapy: A Prediction." Paper read before the Midwestern Psychological Association, Cleveland, Ohio, April, 1952.

sons as well as the correlation between any two sorts.

RESULTS

Sorts describing the subjects' self-concepts, the ratings of the students by the teachers, and the students' conceptions of how the teachers perceived them yielded two kinds of data:

In comparing the ρ values of the self-concepts between high-ranking students and teachers with those of the concepts of low-ranking students and teachers, two of the eight cases yielded differences significant at the 5 per cent level or beyond.⁴ It can thus be inferred that the first hypothesis is sustained: that students receiving high

TABLE 1
RANK-ORDER CORRELATIONS (ρ) FOR GROUPS I AND II AMONG SELF-CONCEPTS OF TEACHERS, SELF-CONCEPTS OF STUDENTS, TEACHERS' RATINGS OF STUDENTS, AND STUDENTS' CONCEPTS OF TEACHERS' RATINGS (THE PICTURED SELF)

MEASURES CORRELATED	GROUP I		GROUP II	
	Student 1	Student 2	Student 3	Student 4
Self-concept of teacher and self-concept of student:				
High-ranking.....	.54	.67	.33	.47
Low-ranking.....	.24	.26	-.86	.70
Teacher's self-concept and teacher's ratings of student:				
High-ranking.....	.45	.33	.71	.13
Low-ranking.....	-.81	.47	.33	.06
Student's concept of teacher's ratings and teacher's actual ratings:				
High-ranking.....	.69	.50	.71	.39
Low-ranking.....	.01	.30	-.94	.06
Teacher's ratings and student's self-concept:				
High-ranking.....	.83	.51	.56	.43
Low-ranking.....	-.99	.31	.19	.34

(a) rank-order correlations (ρ) indicating degree of association between the sorts and (b) profiles of the individuals. Both data have been handled here on a probability basis, wherein certain relations have been predicted.

The correlation coefficients of Table 1 will be considered in relation to testing each of the hypotheses outlined above.

marks describe themselves in terms more like those used by the teacher to describe herself than students receiving low marks.

To test the second hypothesis, the correlations between the teachers' self-concepts and their ratings of the students were used. Three of the eight

⁴ R. A. Fisher, *Statistical Methods for Research Workers*. London: Oliver & Boyd, 1938.

comparisons of the *rho* values were significant at the 5 per cent level. It appears that the teacher does describe students given high marks in terms that are more like those she uses to describe herself than are the terms she uses to describe students given low marks. This suggests that the teacher, thinking of the high-ranking students as more like herself than are the low-ranking students, would be able to communicate more easily with the former.

Four of the eight comparisons of the teachers' ratings of students with the students' idea of the teachers' ratings for the high-ranking and the low-ranking students were significantly different at the 5 per cent level. This is in line with the stated expectancy that high-ranking students' concepts of teachers' ratings will be more like the teachers' actual ratings than will the similar concepts of low-ranking students. These data warrant the conclusion that the communication between high-ranking students described here and their teachers was better than communication between the low-ranking students and their teachers.

In comparing the teachers' ratings with the students' self-concepts, the fourth hypothesis was also sustained: that teachers' ratings of high-ranking students will more often be similar to the students' self-descriptions than will the teachers' descriptions of low-ranking students. Thus, further support is given to the thesis that differences do exist in the communication of high-ranking students with the teach-

er and the communication of low-ranking students with the teacher.

Short profiles may be used to illustrate, in a broader sense, the character orientations of the teachers and the students. Since these profiles are drawn from the two highest and the two lowest of the rank-position differences, it must be recognized that they are but a gross approximation. For example, an individual might assign to the inner-value receptive item the top rank (+12) and to the emotional-impact receptive item, the lowest rank (-12). In obtaining the sum, the two items cancel each other, with zero resulting. However, the profiles have been judged to be sufficiently stable for use as another basis for testing the hypothesis.⁵ By comparing the self-concept profiles of the teacher with the self-concept profiles of the students, the *actual* similarities and differences between them can be obtained. The similarities and differences of her own personality and the personalities of her students, as perceived by the teacher, become apparent when the profiles of the teacher and her ratings of the students are compared.

Short profiles of the two groups are shown in Table 2. The broken lines in Table 2 indicate a division between the orientations given the most and the least value.

The actual similarities between the students and teachers, as evidenced by the comparison of their profiles, were used as the basis for judging the ratings of the students by the teach-

⁵ E. H. Porter, Jr., *op. cit.*

ers. After testing for similarity of profiles of students and teachers, it was found that all sixteen symbols representing the self-sorts of the high-ranking students met the expectancy. Applying the same test⁶ for the low-rank-

rating of students by teachers, high-ranking students were perceived by the teachers to be like themselves in every case.

Comparisons of the profiles of the teachers' ratings of low-ranking stu-

TABLE 2

SHORT PROFILES FOR GROUPS I AND II OBTAINED FROM TEACHER AND STUDENT SORTS OF PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS MOST LIKE AND LEAST LIKE THOSE POSSESSED BY THE INDIVIDUAL BEING DESCRIBED*

SELF-SORT BY TEACHER	SELF-SORT OF STUDENT				RATING OF STUDENT BY TEACHER			
	High Ranking		Low-Ranking		High-Ranking		Low-Ranking	
Group I	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Most like: H+ R+	R+ H+	R+ E+	E+ M+	E+ M-†	R+ E+	R+ M+	M-† H-†	R-† R+
Least like: M- E-	E- H-	M- E-	R- E-	H- E-	M- H-	M- H-	M+† R+†	H+† E-
Group II	High-Ranking		Low-Ranking		High-Ranking		Low-Ranking	
	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4
Most like: H+ R+	H+ M+	M+ R+	R+ M-†	R+ H+	R+ E+	M+ H+	R-† H+	R-† H-†
Least like: E- M-	R- E-	E- H-	E- H-	M- E-	E- H-	R- H-	E+† E-	E- R+†

* A plus sign (+) indicates a high loading on an orientation, and a minus sign (-) indicates the orientation with a low loading.

† The letters marked with daggers (R = receptive, E = exploitative, H = hoarding, and M = marketing) do not fulfil the stated predictions.

ing students, fourteen of the sixteen symbols were found to be similar. In view of these findings, it is presumed that these students all conceived of themselves as being like the teachers. It is of interest to note that, in the

dents with the teachers' profiles of their own self-concepts yielded similarities in but five of sixteen sorts. Because of this low agreement, it was of interest to compare teachers' ratings of low-ranking students with teachers' self-concepts in an opposite manner.

* R. A. Fisher, *op. cit.*

That is, it was hypothesized that the teachers' ratings of the low-ranking students would be different from the self-concepts of the teachers. If this were found to hold, it could be concluded that the low-ranking students were perceived by the teachers as opposite to themselves. Eleven of the sixteen symbols were found to be different in the teachers' ratings of the low-ranking students and the teachers' self-concepts. This indicated that, while all the students described themselves in much the same terms as those used by the teachers to describe themselves, the teachers perceived the low-ranking students in terms clearly opposite to those in which they perceived the high-ranking students and themselves. In other words, the high-ranking students tended to be rated by the teachers as being similar to themselves, and the low-ranking students tended to be rated as dissimilar.

DISCUSSION

It has been noted that, for each teacher, the system of relatedness between the marks of the students and the personal relations between student and teacher was distinct. It has been assumed here, however that one variable in the interpersonal relations—the facilitation of communication—remains independent. Communication appears possible only when a real attempt to understand is made by the persons concerned. Each person must try to “see the expressed idea and attitude from the other person’s point of view, to sense how it feels to him, to

achieve his frame of reference in regard to the thing he is talking about.”⁷ When each individual tends to judge, evaluate, approve, or disapprove the statement of the other, there exists a barrier to communication serving to prevent understanding. Rogers observes:

Although the tendency to make evaluations is common in almost all interchange of language, it is very much heightened in those situations where feelings and emotions are deeply involved. So the stronger our feelings, the more likely it is that there will be no mutual element in the communication.⁸

An individual may deliberately hide, distort, or mask many of his thoughts in order to protect his security and the feelings of others, as well as to enhance his ego. Some of these thoughts may be withheld from overt expression because the individual regards them as irrelevant, immaterial, or false. Other thoughts may not be revealed by the individual because he is not sure of their adequacy or because he has difficulty in expressing them to another person. In addition, the conditions under which a group is established and organized largely determine the thoughts which the individual member is free to verbalize and those which he must keep hidden. In view of this, it might be hypothesized that, when an antagonistic or threat-

⁷ Carl R. Rogers, “Communication: Its Block and Facilitation,” Paper read at Northwestern University’s Centennial Conference on Communication, Evanston, Illinois, October, 1951.

⁸ *Ibid.*

ening emotional involvement exists between the teacher and the student, there may be little or no communication. On the other hand, good communication is, perhaps, a prerequisite for a good relation and good marks in discussion classes. Through use of communication as a basis for interpretation, it is possible that our teacher's system of marking was influenced by her character orientation.

In Group I, the teacher's psychological predisposition was a blend of the hoarding and receptive orientations. If her orientation were wholly hoarding, she would be threatened by attempts at intimacy. Being dependent on people because of her receptivity, it is more likely that she will be able to communicate with most people unless they present active threats to her self-esteem. She perceives herself as a cheerful, modest person, whom others can count on to be dependable and fair. She does not feel that she must be quick to grab an opportunity or to take what she thinks she deserves. In view of this, she might be most threatened and least able to communicate with those students whose dominant orientation is exploitative.

High-ranking Student 1 (Group I), with a dominant receptive orientation, describes herself as a cheerful and friendly person who makes others feel that they can rely on her to be fair, honest, dependable, and down to earth. She believes that she makes others feel more worth while. She does not feel that she is quick to look out for herself, nor does she believe that

she looks down on those who are weak. Rather, she sees herself as interested in others, and she is probably dependent upon them for support.

High-ranking Student 2 (Group I) perceives herself as making others feel worth while and well regarded; they can count on her. She tries not to offend and is practical in her dealings. She does not feel that the world is a place where the individual must seize an opportunity or another person will. Because her orientation is a blend of the receptive and exploitative, it is probable that she, being dependent on others, yet cautious in her attitude, will be able to get along with most people.

Low-ranking Student 1 (Group I) has an exploitative-marketing orientation. She perceives herself as active, able to make claims upon people, and able to take the initiative in most cases. She depends on her ability to "sell" herself as well as on what she can do and on the fact that others feel that her company is enjoyable and she is a capable person to have around.

Low-ranking Student 2 (Group I) feels self-confident and able to take the initiative, as well as to make claims on others. She perceives herself as reserved, and yet she always tries to do things in an approved manner and in that way attract attention. She is proud and feels that, if people do not notice her, it is not because she has not done her part.

From these descriptions of the members of Group I, it appears that the teacher had good communication only with the two high-ranking stu-

dents. The low-ranking students both had character traits that might offer serious threat to the teacher's security. For this reason, it might be difficult, if not impossible, for her to attempt to perceive things within their frames of reference.

While both teachers assigned high marks to those students who seemed to offer no active threat, as measured by the index used here, it must be recognized that the personality orientations of the rejected students were not necessarily entirely opposed to those of the teachers. The first teacher seemed best able to communicate with students most like herself; it was those students who received the best marks. Perhaps lack of communication and greater psychological distance entered into the assignment of low marks to those students whom the teacher perceived to be more unlike her. On the other hand, the second teacher assigned low marks both to the students most like and to those least like herself. This would suggest that these students offered some threat because of her own orientation. The girls receiving high marks were found to have traits which offered a minimum of demands upon the value system of the teacher, thus facilitating communication.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This investigation was initiated to test the hypothesis that teacher-stu-

dent similarities in character orientation are related to students' marks. The data reported warrant the following conclusions:

1. Students receiving high marks described themselves in terms more like those which the teachers used to describe themselves than did students receiving low marks. Conversely, students receiving high marks were described by the teachers more in terms of the teachers' self-descriptions than were students receiving low marks.

2. High-ranking students' concepts of the teachers' ratings of students were more like the teachers' actual ratings than were low-ranking students' concepts of the teachers' ratings.

3. The teachers' ratings of the high-ranking students were more similar to the students' self-descriptions than were the teachers' ratings of the low-ranking students.

It is apparent that teacher-student personality factors, which bear upon the facilitation of class communication, influence the marking of students. Thus, as the school attempts to develop more complex traits in individuals, it becomes important to consider not only the scholastic attainment of the students but the impact of the personality interaction and communication of students and teachers on both the learning effected and the marking employed.

THE COMPARATIVE EFFECTIVENESS OF A CORE AND A CONVENTIONAL CURRICULUM IN DEVELOPING SOCIAL CONCERN. I

JEAN FAIR
University of Chicago



IN RECENT YEARS interest in the development of core curriculums as a means of providing secondary-school students with better opportunities in general education has been growing. Interest has been growing, too, in developing better education for citizenship, one aspect of which is *social concern*. Persons interested in core programs have hoped that they would be more effective than traditional curriculums in developing many aspects of citizenship and, of course, a variety of other desired characteristics. Conversely, persons interested in citizenship education have been interested in core curriculums as one means, among many others, of improving education in this area. However, there has been little evidence to show whether core curriculums actually are more effective than conventional programs in developing this one aspect of citizenship, social concern. The purpose of this study was the comparison of the effectiveness of these two kinds of curricular programs in developing social concern in secondary-school students.

DEFINITION OF SOCIAL CONCERN

The definition of *social concern* used in this study is not thought of as the only one possible but merely as a reasonable and tenable definition which includes some behaviors needed by all persons for living in a democratic society. Social concern is considered to be a complex of behaviors primarily intellectual in character. A person who is socially concerned in a democratic society is *aware of social conditions* about which society is required to make some decision. He is *able to apply statements of fact and value generalizations to social problems*. More specifically, he sees whether or not a statement of a fact or value generalization is consistent with a conclusion, and he distinguishes between statements of verifiable fact and statements of value generalizations.

Such a person is *willing to take a democratic position toward social goals and policies*. In other words, he approves democratic goals and policies, and he approves social policies consistent with his chosen social goals.

Moreover, he is *interested in social conditions, events, goals, and actions*. He engages in some or all of the following activities:

1. Observes social conditions on trips, and as depicted on the stage, in motion pictures, and the like.
2. Listens to lectures, radio programs, and the like which deal with social problems.
3. Discusses social problems with others.
4. Writes about social conditions and problems.
5. Reads newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, and books to find out about conditions, events, goals, and action.
6. Studies and thinks about conditions, events, goals, and action.
7. Takes part in social action by working in social-betterment organizations, writing letters to public officials, contributing money and goods to campaigns, and the like.
8. Expresses what he feels and thinks in art work.

Certain terms need clarification for a precise definition of social concern. *Social conditions* are considered to be states of affairs which persist over a period of time and which affect, directly or indirectly, a large number of people. *Social goals* are general social conditions which ought to prevail. *Courses of social action or social policies* are processes which promote progress toward social goals. *Social problems* arise from social conditions about which society is required to make some decision. A *democratic position* toward social goals and courses of action or policies is held to be one which considers human welfare more important than material gain, places the common good above private or special interest, relies upon intelligent and

co-operative participation rather than the authority of persons or groups as such, and approves tryouts of new social methods for the improvement of society rather than uncritical maintenance of, and domination by, a status quo.

Generalizations in the social sciences are thought of as means of arriving at tentative conclusions, rather than as either infallible means or infallible conclusions. Generalizations may be used to (1) explain, (2) predict, (3) describe, or (4) judge phenomena, whether or not they are universally true, verifiable, applicable, or exact. There can be, then, both factual and value generalizations.

Consideration had to be given also to the kinds of social-problem areas about which young people ought to be concerned, particularly the young people in the two curriculum programs compared in this study. A selection was made from those areas which were (1) held important by social-science experts, (2) commonly discussed in the press and on the radio, and (3) studied by the young people in school. Education, foreign policy, race relations, the distribution of income, labor-management relations, the formation of public opinion, government relations with business, and the conservation of natural resources were the areas chosen by these criteria.

TYPES OF CURRICULUM PROGRAMS STUDIED

The core program and the conventional program chosen for study were

undoubtedly different in some respects from others of their kind; nonetheless each had characteristics typical of their kind. Both these curriculum programs were offered in the same large suburban high school. Students ordinarily entered either of the programs in Grade IX and remained through Grade XII. Enrolment in either program was voluntary. Classes in each of the programs included about the same number of students. Teachers in both programs were professionally competent.

Many of the opportunities which the school provided, such as participation in extra-curriculum activities, were equally available to students in either curriculum. Except in English and social studies, the students in the core classes enrolled in all other classes on the same basis as did students in the conventional program. Both programs had been in existence for several years before this study was made in 1951.

OBJECTIVES AND CONTENT

In neither program were the objectives clearly formulated in terms of behavior and content. Both programs had a wide range of objectives; both included the development of social concern.

Core curriculum.—Objectives in the core curriculum were ordinarily derived from that which the students themselves, with the help of their teachers, recognized was important for them to learn. Thus objectives were set up for particular groups.

Growth of desirable interests, appreciations, attitudes, and beliefs; personal-social adjustment; and the development of desirable work habits and study skills, communication skills, and the ability to think critically were held to be more important than the acquisition of information and knowledge of subject matter. Nevertheless, acquiring knowledge was considered important.

The content of the core curriculum was drawn from several subject-matter areas, but primarily from the fields of English and social studies. In Grade XI some study of United States history was required, as was the study of some aspects of consumer education in Grade XII. Except for these requirements, however, core groups were free to select whatever content seemed appropriate for them. An indication of the content actually selected can be had from the titles of units: "Why We Behave as We Do," "War and Peace," "The Development of Our Economic System," "Theater, Motion Pictures, Radio, and Television," and "After High School, What?"

Conventional curriculum.—Objectives in the conventional program were determined by teachers, who drew heavily upon the recommendations of subject-matter experts, and they were generally the same for all groups of students in any one course. Acquisition of information and understanding and the development of work habits and communication skills were given more emphasis than were the development of interests, attitudes,

appreciations, study skills, the ability to think critically, and personal-social adjustment. However, the objectives of the curriculum included the development of all these behaviors.

The content of the conventional curriculum was drawn almost entirely from the fields of English and social studies. Typical units in the social-studies courses were "Vocations," "Greek Civilization," "Economic Development of the United States," "Politics and Government," and "International Affairs." All students were required to enrol in courses in ninth-grade social studies and United States history, and they might enrol in courses in world-history, problems of democracy, or, possibly, economic geography or modern history.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES AND THEIR ORGANIZATION

Core curriculum.—In the core program the students and teacher in each class participated in planning the objectives, the learning experiences and their organization, and the methods of evaluation. Core groups planned, of course, with varying degrees of efficiency, but students made plans more readily as they continued to have opportunities to use planning methods learned in Grade IX of the program.

At the beginning of each unit, core groups selected, through group discussion and sometimes committee investigation, some topic for study. In doing so, they ordinarily used some such criteria as these:

1. The topic had to allow opportunities for making use of, and developing, individual interests and capabilities.

2. The topic had to permit a variety of learning experiences including those in collecting, interpreting, and evaluating information.

3. The content had to be useful for dealing with present personal and social problems.

4. The topic had to be broad, yet manageable, and one which could be investigated with the materials available.

Once the topic was selected, students often divided into committees to prepare more detailed outlines of aspects of the topic and to work out suggestions for learning activities. It was at this point that groups considered the behaviors they thought to be desirable for development. From the reports of these committees and from class discussion, an over-all plan for several weeks' work was drawn up.

Students ordinarily chose aspects of the topic to investigate and to report upon to the group. Each student, and sometimes the teacher, was expected to assume responsibility for one or two reports. Although students occasionally dramatized concepts, used audio-visual materials, or gave demonstrations as part of their reports, they presented the greatest number of their reports as lectures. Each report was followed by a group discussion in which students had opportunities for clarifying their understandings, for applying other information and values, for developing interest, for learning to take stands on issues presented, and for other kinds of learning. Preparing, presenting or hearing, and discussing

reports were the most common learning activities in core classes.

However, core groups used a wide variety of other learning activities. Core groups held weekly discussions of current affairs. They made occasional trips to such places as broadcasting studios and city housing projects. They used many motion pictures and filmstrips. They asked speakers to discuss topics like compulsory health insurance. Students read plays, poetry, novels, and short stories about social affairs. They listened to radio programs in which several speakers supported diverse points of view on current problems. They wrote radio scripts on social issues, and they themselves held panel discussions on current problems. They wrote papers on social problems of importance to them. Moreover, they participated in many learning activities which were intended to promote growth toward objectives other than social concern.

Core groups had not identified any comprehensive set of those concepts, values, and abilities which were aspects of social concern and which students were to learn. Nonetheless, some had been made explicit, and others were developed without formal recognition. Since core groups were not required to observe many subject-matter boundaries, they had opportunities for integrating experiences by drawing upon more than one subject-matter area. Planning sessions provided opportunities for seeing that topics had meaning for students and were building upon concepts, values, and abili-

ties previously developed to some degree.

Most of the learning experiences in the core curriculum were organized into units. However, core groups did not ordinarily plan for many activities in which there were opportunities at the end of units to draw together into some systematic framework what had been learned.

Conventional curriculum.—In the conventional program, the learning activities and the organization of these activities were, like the objectives, largely determined by the teachers. In planning the curriculum, the teachers took into account what they knew of their students and what society required of them, and (in the social-studies department) an agreed-upon definition of democratic education. However, teachers drew most heavily upon the recommendations of subject-matter experts, particularly for the secondary-school level. Although teachers planned together, individual teachers made more specific plans for their own classes.

Moreover, at the beginning of each unit, teachers ordinarily explained to students what was to be learned—perhaps the major trends, cultural achievements, or problems to be understood and why they were important.

The most common type of learning experience was general class discussion of the day's assignment. Class discussion was focused on accurate and precise understanding of the material in the assignment. The teacher asked

many of the questions, although students, too, asked for clarification of what they did not understand. Students were frequently asked to take some position toward a problem under discussion and to support this position by using their information and values. Teachers relied heavily upon this kind of discussion for developing interests in particular problem areas.

Students in conventional-program classes participated in almost as wide a variety of other kinds of learning experiences as did students in core classes. Students sometimes prepared reports from a variety of sources. They, too, used motion pictures and filmstrips. They made maps, diagrams, and charts. They heard speakers describe occupational fields. Occasionally, as part of their work, they read short stories, novels, and plays which dealt with present social conditions. Students held panel discussions on such questions as government aid to underdeveloped nations. Then, too, there were other learning activities which furthered progress toward objectives other than social concern.

Although teachers in the conventional program had not worked out any comprehensive set of concepts, values, and abilities which students were to develop over a period of years, teachers had identified some and provided for the development of others without explicit recognition. Since the conventional program was divided into courses, it was more difficult to provide for enriching what was learned in one subject area by drawing upon

what was learned in another. Nonetheless, students had some opportunities to relate what was learned in both English and social-studies courses. Because the social-studies program was made up of courses, planning for sequence was difficult. Teachers did give some attention in planning the curriculum in each course to students' levels of development.

In the conventional program, too, most of the learning activities were organized into several units, usually a greater number than was found in the core program. By the end of a unit, students usually had some experiences in summarizing, generalizing, reviewing, or using what they had learned. They commonly reviewed for a test. Sometimes they wrote papers or held panel discussions.

Each of the social-studies classes and English classes in the conventional curriculum program met for one of the seven class periods of the school day. In contrast, core students were all continuously enrolled in core classes which met for two consecutive periods during each school day. By the time the conventional curriculum students reached Grade XII, only about one-fourth had been enrolled in four social-studies courses, somewhat more than one-third had been enrolled in three, and another third had been enrolled in only two.

EVALUATION

In neither the core nor the conventional programs were there plans for

systematically evaluating progress toward all the objectives.

Core curriculum.—Core groups ordinarily participated in evaluation. Each of the reports presented to the class was discussed and then evaluated by the teacher and the students. At the end of every unit and after projects of at least several days' duration, each group considered the group's success or lack of it in all the learning experiences in the unit or project, and a few core groups planned for tests at the ends of units to measure progress. Three times a year, teachers, after discussions with students, wrote qualitative evaluations of the progress of their groups as groups. At the same time, teachers also wrote descriptions of the progress of individual students, and each student wrote an evaluation of his own progress.

Throughout the year, teachers also evaluated the written work that students completed, by pointing out errors and making suggestions for improvements. Scores on school-wide standardized tests in English and United States history were reported to students in terms of national or school-wide norms. However, almost all other evaluations of core students were made in terms of individual or group purposes, abilities, and needs, and particular strengths and weaknesses were pointed out. Generally, core students were not explicitly compared with other students. Marks were not usually given, although students received marks in other classes in which they were enrolled.

Conventional curriculum.—Students in conventional classes did not ordinarily participate in evaluation. In English classes, teachers did not as a rule evaluate growth in social concern. In social-studies classes, teachers systematically evaluated progress only in acquiring information and understanding of the content of the subject. There were often short tests on the content of the day's assignment, longer tests on the content of units, and standardized tests in history. Teachers obtained additional evidence of progress from students' written and oral reports and from their participation in panel or class discussions. Group progress was not usually evaluated.

Scores on standardized tests were reported to students in terms of national or school-wide norms. Other evaluations were reported in terms of teachers' comments and marks. Six times during the year students received report cards on which a mark, based on a comparison with other students, was recorded for each course. However, the meaning of any mark had not been precisely defined. Students receiving high marks were named on honor rolls.

PROVISIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

In both the core and the conventional programs it was expected that many of the special interests of the students would be provided for in such courses as mathematics, commercial subjects, foreign languages, and practical arts. However, some provisions

for individual differences were made within both the core program and the program involving social studies and English.

Core program.—Differences among individual students in core groups were to be provided for within each class. During planning sessions, for example, students considered what they, as individuals, had as purposes, needs, and capabilities. Students might choose subtopics which were considered appropriate for them and might use materials suited to them in preparing their reports. Students ordinarily planned their own programs for reading beyond that required for making reports or occasional reading as a group.

Conventional curriculum.—For the most part, the English and social-studies programs provided for differences among individuals through special classes. In the Grades IX–XII there were classes in English and in social studies for students of unusually low ability. In Grade XI students who had at least average marks in English and appropriate interests might enrol in English courses emphasizing either journalism or dramatics, while in Grade XII such students might enrol in a speech course or in an honors English course. Moreover, it will be recalled that students might choose social-studies courses which seemed appropriate for them from the four elective courses in this field. Although some further provisions for individual differences were made within English and social-studies classes, the activi-

ties of any one class or even any one course were, for the most part, much the same for all individuals.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS AND THE ROLES OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

Core curriculum.—It was considered important for individuals in core classes to be contributing members of their group by carrying out such activities as previously described. Individual students were thought to be responsible for the group's welfare, as was the teacher.

Students in core groups sometimes failed to carry out their responsibilities or to work effectively together. At times when groups encountered difficulties, and regularly at the end of one unit and the beginning of the next, discussions were held to deal with the problems of group operation. These met with varying degrees of success. Moreover, groups planned some activities, such as parties and listening to records, primarily to give students recognition on bases other than competence in dealing with subject matter, although, of course, these activities promoted growth toward some objectives. Many core classes developed considerable group cohesiveness.

The role of the teacher in the group was that of a friendly adviser or a person whose greater competence made him a valuable contributor. He was expected to be an active group member, who assumed responsibilities for the group's welfare.

Conventional curriculum.—In the conventional program the relationships within the classroom which were publicly recognized to be important were those between individuals and the teacher. The student's responsibility was to do his work well and at the time for which it was assigned. Individuals were not usually thought to be responsible for the welfare of the group, nor the group for the welfare of individuals. Consequently, classes in the conventional program did not ordinarily discuss the effectiveness of their work as a group, nor did they provide such activities as class parties.

The teacher's role in the class was that of director; he was ordinarily a friendly and understanding one. Although he sometimes asked students for suggestions, it was his responsibility

to plan what was to be done and to see that it was done.

GUIDANCE

Guidance services were provided for students in both the core and the conventional programs by the school guidance office, home-room directors, home-room advisers, career clubs, and the like. However, guidance was an integral part of the core curriculum whereas it was much less a part of the social-studies and English curriculum. Moreover, core teachers had better opportunities to know students as individuals, since they met each day about half the number of students that teachers met in the classes of the conventional program.

In a second article, the report on the testing program will be given, and a statistical comparison of the two types of groups will be made.

[To be concluded]

SECONDARY-SCHOOL PUPILS' ATTITUDES TOWARD STUDENT TEACHERS¹

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A MAJOR PURPOSE of student teaching, it is generally agreed, is to provide a series of experiences under expert supervision which will develop a high level of competence in the students preparing to teach.

PURPOSE AND PROCEDURE OF STUDY

The basic purpose of this study is to ascertain the attitudes of secondary-school pupils toward student teachers, through the use of a special questionnaire. On this questionnaire, characteristics of the student teachers are considered in terms of statements listed under eleven categories: (1) personal appearance, (2) ability to explain lessons, (3) friendliness in the classroom, (4) fairness in marking, (5) discipline, (6) amount of outside work assigned, (7) liking for teaching, (8) voice, (9) mannerisms, (10) knowledge of subject matter, and (11) estimate of probable success as a teacher.

Specifically, this study has the four-fold purpose of discerning (1) the frequency of mention by boys and by

girls of the various characteristics of student teachers as listed in each category; (2) the rank order of importance of each characteristic as checked by boys and girls; (3) the coefficient of correlation between the choices of boys and girls as related to the eleven categories; and (4) the validity and reliability of the questionnaire used in this study.

SOURCE OF DATA

Eleven co-operating public high schools in New Hampshire within a radius of approximately seventy-five miles of the campus of Plymouth Teachers College participated in this survey. The enrolments of these high schools, which include Grades IX-XII, ranged from 139 to 1,507. The survey was made during the first semester of 1952-53.

Twenty-three supervising teachers assisted in the project. They administered the questionnaire, which included 68 items descriptive of the student teacher and of his competence in teaching, to 590 high-school pupils, who rated 15 student teachers from Plymouth State Teachers College. The mean number of items rated per

¹ A slightly different version of this paper was originally prepared for, and presented to, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Section Q, Monday, December 28, 1953, Boston, Massachusetts.

student teacher approximated 39. The minimum and the maximum number of ratings per student teacher were 32 and 46, respectively.

PROCEDURE IN COLLECTING DATA

During the first semester of 1952-53 the writer visited the high schools to which the student teachers had been assigned during the previous semester. Numerous conferences with the principals and supervising teachers indicated a willingness on their part to co-operate in the project.

Shortly after each student teacher had completed his student teaching, the supervising teachers gave the high-school pupils the questionnaire so that they could record their impressions. Each supervising teacher explained briefly the purpose of the questionnaire.* The pupils were not required to attach their signatures to the completed form. However, in order to differentiate between the sexes, the responding students were asked to place the initials *M* (denoting male) or *F* (denoting female) in the upper right-hand corner of the first page. The length of time required to complete the questionnaire by the students was estimated at fifteen minutes.

* The purpose of the questionnaire was to supplement other data concerning the student teacher in an effort to improve the guidance program; for example, pointing out possible weaknesses or strengths as judged by the pupils; assisting in scheduling courses for the second semester; viewing possible implications of the pupil ratings, such as providing for individual differences, fairness in marking, discipline, and the like.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

In reviewing the data collected by means of the questionnaire (Table 1), it was found that 88.1 per cent of the high-school pupils considered that the fifteen student teachers whom they rated in this survey were neatly dressed. About 77 per cent of the pupils checked the item "Will admit a mistake when it is called to his attention," thus indicating that most of the student teachers exhibited this important characteristic. "Is easy to talk to both in and out of class" was checked with almost the same frequency, namely, by 76.1 per cent of the pupils. Ranking fourth in frequency of mention, with 72.7 per cent of the students checking the item, was "Gives everyone an opportunity to discuss and ask questions."

Other items checked by two-thirds or more of the pupils were: "Always explains very clearly" (69.5 per cent), "Gives extra help to pupils who need it" (70.3 per cent), "Is cheerful both in and out of class" (71 per cent), "Has a friendly smile" (67.6 per cent), "Voice is easy to listen to throughout the period" (66.6 per cent), and "Doesn't mind being corrected by pupils" (68.6 per cent). All these items relate to the personal characteristics of the student teachers rated in the study.

By combining two items listed in the separate categories (not all of which are shown in Table 1), we found over 66 per cent of the pupils checking these student teachers as "Having both 'good' and 'bad' days, but mak-

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TABLE 1
TWO STATEMENTS IN EACH CATEGORY MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED
ON QUESTIONNAIRE RATING OF 15 STUDENT TEACHERS
BY 590 HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

CATEGORY AND EVALUATING STATEMENT	FREQUENCY OF MENTION			PER CENT OF RATINGS (INCLUDING BOTH SEXES)	RANK*
	Boys	Girls	Total		
Personal appearance:					
Is always neatly dressed	170	350	520	88.1	1
Usually is neatly dressed	24	37	61	10.3	34
Ability to explain lessons:					
Always explains very clearly	96	314	410	69.5	7
Sometimes can explain things clearly	37	102	139	23.6	28
Friendliness in the classroom:					
Gives extra help to pupils who need it	91	324	415	70.3	6
Is easy to talk to both in and out of class	106	343	449	76.1	3
Fairness in marking:					
Always gives the marks earned	95	275	370	62.7	14
Gives fair marks	47	188	235	39.8	25
Discipline:					
Is able to hold the attention of most of the pupils most of the time	86	256	342	58.0	16
Is cheerful both in and out of class	96	323	419	71.0	5
Amount of outside work assigned:					
Gives just the right amount	87	282	369	62.5	15
His assignments are easily understood	82	292	374	63.4	12
Liking for teaching:					
Gives everyone an opportunity to discuss and ask questions	106	323	429	72.7	4
Has a friendly smile	96	303	399	67.6	9
Voice:					
Voice is easy to listen to throughout the period	105	288	393	66.6	10
His voice is very pleasant	79	243	322	54.6	18
Mannerisms:					
Has a few mannerisms but they are not objectionable	71	203	274	46.4	22
Is free from any mannerisms	50	198	248	42.0	24
Knowledge of subject matter:					
Doesn't mind being corrected by pupils	99	306	405	68.6	8
Will admit a mistake when it is called to his attention	109	345	454	76.9	2
Estimate of probable success as a teacher:					
Superior teacher	52	84	136	23.1	29
Good teacher	118	220	338	57.3	17

* Ranks are based on the sixty-eight items included in the entire questionnaire.

ing the lessons interesting" and "Free from any objectionable mannerisms."

A slightly lesser per cent thought that the student teachers rated in this study "Always give the marks earned" (62.7 per cent), "Are able to hold the attention of most of the pupils most of the time" (58.0 per cent), "Give assignments that are easily understood" (63.4 per cent), "Give just the right amount of work" (62.5 per cent), "Always seem to enjoy teaching" (63.1 per cent), "Help pupils in answering questions" (53.2 per cent), and "Know the subject matter" (63.9 per cent).

Approximately 70 per cent, or 413 pupils, characterized these student teachers by checking desirable qualities. Roughly 30 per cent, or 177 pupils, rated the student teachers by checking items that suggested the possibility of improvement.

The 15 student teachers included in this study were rated by 57.3 per cent of the pupils in the category of "Good teacher"; by 23.1 per cent in the category of "Superior teacher"; by 19 per cent in the category of "Average teacher"; by 0.6 per cent in the category of "Very doubtful prospect"; and by none in the category of "Definitely undesirable."

There were some noticeable differences between the boys and the girls in the items selected to describe these student teachers. For example, over 80 per cent of the girls checked such items as "Always explains lessons clearly," "Gives extra help to pupils who need it," "Is easy to talk to both in and out of class," "Gives everyone

an opportunity to discuss and ask questions," "Has a friendly smile," "Doesn't mind being corrected by pupils," and "Will admit a mistake when it is called to his attention." Less than half of the boys checked these same characteristics. The item "Is always neatly dressed" was checked by more than 80 per cent of both the boys and the girls.

Approximately three-fourths of the girls and less than half of the boys checked the following items pertaining to these student teachers: "Always gives the marks earned," "Is able to hold the attention of most of the pupils most of the time," "Gives just the right amount of outside work," "Always seems to enjoy teaching," "Voice is easy to listen to throughout the period," and "Knows his subject and appears confident."

Slightly more than half of the girls and roughly a third of the boys checked the characteristics, "Usually seems interested in pupils," "Makes the lessons interesting," "Helps us in answering our questions," "Voice is very pleasant," "Is free from any objectionable mannerisms." The item "Is a good teacher" was checked by over half of both boys and girls.

Another approach toward discerning the relation between the responses of the boys and the girls who rated the student teachers in the survey was to determine the correlation of the responses of the sexes in each category. According to Table 2, in which the coefficients of correlation were computed by pairing boys' ratings versus girls'

ratings on each of the eleven categories, we find that all categories save two result in correlations of over .90. The mean correlation coefficient is equal to .956. In spite of some differences, apparently there is a significant degree of agreement between the sexes in their ratings of these student teachers.

RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The reliability coefficients of the ratings obtained from pupils rating each of the fifteen student teachers ranged between .76 and .89. The reliability was obtained by the split-test procedure. For the classes of the twenty-three supervising teachers in Grades IX through XII, the completed questionnaires rating the fifteen student teachers were divided into two chance piles and correlated as follows:

$$\text{Pupils 1, 3, 5, 7, } \dots \frac{(N-1)}{2},$$

$$\text{Pupils, 2, 4, 6, 8, } \dots \frac{N}{2},$$

where N is the total number of pupils in the class who rated the teacher. By using the Spearman-Brown prophecy

formula, the chance halves were stepped up.

The validity of these ratings depends on the fact that the questionnaire is designed to discover the attitudes of pupils toward student teachers.

TABLE 2
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN BOYS' AND GIRLS'
RATINGS OF STUDENT TEACHERS

Category	Coefficient of Correlation
Personal appearance.....	.768
Ability to explain lessons.....	.999
Friendliness in the classroom.....	.996
Fairness in marking.....	.984
Discipline.....	.842
Amount of outside work assigned...	.992
Liking for teaching.....	.993
Voice.....	.990
Mannerisms.....	.955
Knowledge of subject matter.....	.998
Estimate of probable success as a teacher.....	.996

ers. Hence, since somewhat reliable coefficients have been obtained, they are also valid to the degree that the scale is concerned not with the characteristics that these teachers actually possess in the opinion of competent judges but with the characteristics that they possess in the eyes of the youth whom they taught in the classroom.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE CHICAGO NEWSPAPERS: 1890-1920

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THE DECADES from 1890 to 1920 made up one of the most eventful and controversial eras in the development of American public schools. During these years the many endeavors to integrate a system of public education in an increasingly complex social order eventually resulted in a broader school policy, which, in turn, facilitated reconstruction and expansion. By the end of the period these endeavors culminated in the provision of education for virtually "all the children of all the people." Although educational progress was national in scope, the immediate effects were manifested strikingly in the cities. In Chicago no departure from tradition escaped critical appraisal. Controversies, often prolonged, ensued over the enactment of a compulsory education law, over administrative control, over school support, and over the school curriculum.

The Chicago press, a near-monopolistic agency of mass communication during the period, was one of the more vociferous critics of the educational transition. A steady flow of news and editorials, primarily local in emphasis, accompanied the growth of the public

schools. The study reported here undertook to discover how the newspapers reacted to, and how much they may have influenced, the educational developments of the period. Over twenty-five hundred editorials, supplemented by news items from ten English-language Chicago newspapers, constituted the main sources of data for the study. Many of the editorialized school issues were short-lived and nonrecurrent in nature. The issues of school support, school administration, and changes in curriculum, however, were constantly subjected to editorial judgment. The characteristically critical editorials took numerous opportunities to air opinions on the projected direction of public education. Although editorials frequently condemned educational plans, they nevertheless failed to arrest the progressive reorganization of the public school system.

The editorials were predominantly those of a press in sympathy with the political, social, and economic views of the Republican party. The weak, pro-Democratic press, often opposed to the position taken by the pro-Repub-

lican papers, was more favorably inclined toward the expansion of public education.

EXPANSION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

The Chicago newspapers believed in an American educational system based on free instruction for all children. By and large, the editorials favored limiting the state's obligation for providing mass education to the elementary-school level. The newspapers interpreted the state constitution as authorizing a free, tax-supported "common school" and a curriculum consisting of the three R's, and nothing more.

At the secondary level, the desirability of mass education was seriously challenged by the majority of newspapers, which regarded secondary education as more a luxury than a necessity in a democracy. Until about 1905, the high school was repeatedly attacked as an extravagance. The press maintained that the high cost of secondary education was not justified since the college-preparatory curriculum attracted only a few students. Several newspapers rather prophetically declared that the high school, through a broader, "practical" curriculum, would eventually become the "poor man's college."

AMBIVALENCE TOWARD SCHOOL SUPPORT

Expenditures for public education in Chicago pyramided from approximately five million dollars in 1890 to

nearly thirty-one million in 1920. At no time during these thirty years was the school board able to cope with the problem of providing complete educational services for the school population. The high cost of school support was a matter of concern to Chicago taxpayers, who supplied nearly 90 per cent of the school funds. Main currents of public opinion and editorial criticism of other phases of public education were affected by the sensitivity to the rising school expenses.

Newspapers, like other taxpayers, displayed the temper of vested interests. Protests were lodged against higher property assessments and higher tax rates. The general tendency was to attribute spiraling costs to the extravagance of, and poor management by, the school board. In these three decades, fewer than twenty editorials attempted to defend the annual expenditures for public schools. The most frequent solution advanced by editors to the problem of rising costs was the reduction of current educational services and a return to the fundamentals of the elementary school.

The attack upon school spending was pronounced during the formative years of the nineties. In the next two decades editorial criticism decreased although annual school expenditures continued to rise. After 1910, editorials were more favorable toward the school board's efforts to secure appropriations. Even the newspaper that had made the severest criticisms of school expenditures pleaded the cause

of public schools and agreed that the provisions for school support were inadequate.

While the newspapers were prone to embark upon economy crusades, they neglected to formulate a constructive policy; in fact, they periodically supported proposals that made it more difficult for the school board to discharge its financial responsibility. For example, the newspapers had little sympathy for the school board's attempts to secure a more adequate return on Township Section 16 property, located in the heart of the business district, by modifying the existing leases to include higher decennial appraisals. The strongest opposition came from the *Tribune*, one of the two newspapers leasing school land. The other large newspapers kept clear of the controversy between the school board and the *Tribune*. Two newspapers which were political adversaries of the *Tribune* made an effort to protect the taxpayers' interest at the beginning of the controversy in 1895, but the merger of the two papers in the same year resulted in a new ownership which was friendly to the *Daily News*, the second newspaper leasing school land. Some twenty years later a third newspaper revived the attack upon the leases, apparently motivated more by political revenge than by principles involved.

Though critical of rising school expenditures, the press failed to support an investigation of sources of school revenue undertaken by the Chicago Teachers Federation in 1900. The

Federation charged that no assessments had been made against the capital stock or franchises of several utility companies and that school-fund property had not been revalued for years. The Federation's lawsuits, which finally added nearly six hundred thousand dollars to the city's tax fund, were condemned by newspapers as being selfishly motivated and impertinent.

PHILANTHROPY IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

Chicago newspapers encouraged philanthropy, not only to alleviate the burden of public school support, but to subsidize school services generally considered as being outside the scope of public education. As late as 1912, two newspapers suggested private donations to augment the school treasury. Citizens were commended for contributing equipment and materials to the public schools for use in domestic-science and manual-training classes. The establishment of an endowment to provide for poor high-school students was advocated by one newspaper.

Various auxiliary school services, such as school lunches, vacation schools, and social centers, primarily designed for social betterment and opposed by newspapers as "paternalistic" when considered by the school board, were encouraged and even sponsored by individual newspapers as philanthropic programs. When charitable organizations were unable to sustain the cost of expansion, civic

interest and popularity of the auxiliary services led to a demand for higher school appropriations. The gradual transition in the financing of these activities from support by private subscription to support by taxes progressed steadily, though with some editorial criticism. Any severe adverse press criticism or rejection by the school board of the popular innovations seems to have been forestalled by strong community sentiment. By 1910, the school board had assumed the major responsibility for these auxiliary services.

ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL PERSONNEL

Responsibility for the administration of public schools in Chicago was, in practice, divided among the mayor and city hall, the board of education, and the superintendent of schools, though legal responsibility rested with the board of education. Divided authority impeded the formulation of school policy, which, in turn, was often subverted by city politics.

Conflicts in school administration received close editorial coverage in the city newspapers. In general, the newspapers appreciated the need for stability in the board of education and campaigned for changes to improve the administrative structure of the public school system.

The press was continually alert to detect political "pull" in school administration. Criticism was directed at the mayors' school-board appointees and at policies of incumbent school

trustees. Newspapers urged reluctant mayors to appoint more women as school trustees in order to curb politics in public schools. For the most part, the editorials opposed proposals to make the school board elective since, in the opinion of the editors, this would encourage political patronage. Instead, editorial support was given to smaller, appointive school boards.

The press was also conspicuous in its promotion of greater executive powers for the superintendent of schools. Both city hall and the school board were criticized for their reluctance to grant the superintendent authority commensurate with the responsibility of the office. The press emphasized that responsibility for educational policy in school administration rested with the school board and maintained that the superintendent—the professional expert—was the proper agent to implement the policy.

The relations between the teacher and the school administration were a significant topic of discussion in the press. Editorial attention was sympathetic toward efforts to improve the professional and economic status of teachers. For the most part, the press was more cognizant of the needs of teachers than was the school board.

Of the editorial references to teachers, the largest portion had to do with the economic status of the profession. General support was given to teachers' demands for higher salaries, even though school funds were often exhausted. The main emphasis was placed on the readjustment of the ele-

mentary-school salary schedule. The school board was rebuked for the large differences between salaries of elementary-school teachers and those of high-school teachers. In conjunction with the demands for higher salaries, editorials approved Superintendent Cooley's "merit system" for determining salary increments, which was based on efficiency rating and examinations. The Chicago teachers, who preferred the existing seniority rule, objected to the adoption of the promotional plan.

Editorial opinion was critical of school-board policies which discriminated against women teachers or questioned their competency. It also opposed the attempt to prohibit the employment of married women. Although the press recognized the intellectual equality of women, it did not approve the increasing dominance of women in the teaching profession. The newspapers considered it necessary to employ men teachers in grades above the fifth in order that the full development of the pupil be insured.

For a little more than a decade, 1890-1901, the press followed the progress of legislation to provide retirement pensions for teachers. The problems of a sound pension plan, which were at least partially resolved in later years, were neglected in the editorial columns. The lack of enthusiasm on the part of the press may have been due to its unwillingness to accept the trend toward compulsory pensions and its growing animosity toward the Chicago Teachers Federa-

tion, which actively promoted the plan. The provision of pensions for retired teachers was considered necessary to assure progress of the schools, but the press subscribed to a system based on voluntary membership in, and self-support of, pension plans.

The Teachers Federation, which was organized in 1897 for aggressive action on economic problems of the profession, was initially viewed by the press with an attitude of sufferance. Strong editorial opposition developed when the Federation extended its endeavors beyond bargaining activities with the school board to become a political force in the community. Following the affiliation of the Teachers Federation with the Chicago Federation of Labor in 1902, the antagonism of the press toward labor unions was extended to the organized teachers. Minor school disturbances or "strikes" in the public schools were cited by the press as the outgrowth of labor-union influence. The *American* remained as the sole spokesman for the affiliation of the federations.

Newspapers advocated school-board action to force a dissolution of the affiliated unions. In 1915, the Loeb resolution, striking at the Teachers Federation, was passed by the school board. Summary dismissal, under the resolution, of teachers who refused to leave the Teachers Federation was condoned almost universally by the press. In 1917, the teachers and the school board reached an agreement on the controversial issue. The teachers left the Chicago Federation of Labor,

and, in return, the school board reinstated the discharged members.

CURRICULUM EXPANSION

The thirty-year period under consideration produced significant curriculum changes in elementary- and in secondary-school education. The curriculum that had been instituted in an agrarian society was unable to provide fully for the essential interaction between school and society in the new industrial era. The gap between the functions of the school and the needs of society was widest in the large cities, where industrialization had intensified social and economic problems. Within this period, modification and expansion of the curriculum and the institutional development of education marked the nation's determined efforts to make the public schools a greater contributory factor in the industrial, social, and civic efficiency of the individual.

In Chicago the search for a comprehensive curriculum met with opposition at each turn from tradition-bound education. Every innovation was subjected to the closest scrutiny, not only in the community at large, but also in academic circles. The many diverse sentiments toward the emerging curriculum were reflected by the Chicago newspapers. Basically, editorial attitudes toward the curriculum during this period upheld the status quo. The newspapers held that the *laissez faire* position was a bulwark against the "paternalism" which they considered inherent in the public ex-

pansion of equality of opportunity in education beyond the rudiments taught in the elementary school.

The quest for a broader elementary-school curriculum went through the most critical period in the early nineties, during the war on fads. Newspapers, in general, were engaged in a crusade to limit educational provisions to the "common school" and its curriculum of the three R's, which they maintained was the only education allowed by the state constitution. Subjects encouraging self-expression, such as drawing, music, and manual training, were denounced as "fads and frills." Although some newspapers severely criticized the new courses, other papers were more favorable, at least to certain aspects of the new curriculum. One newspaper defended the program as meeting the need of a changing age for the proper education of the poor, and another newspaper was willing to base the selection of courses on the criterion of "practical value."

High schools escaped the "fad" attack during the nineties, probably because of their small enrolments. However, the expansion of a terminal, utilitarian curriculum in the high school drew increasingly more attention from the newspapers. Editorial attitudes changed as the concept of the practical arts developed from manual training in general education to specialized occupational skills in vocational education. Influenced by the demands of industry for skilled workers and the weak holding power

of the high school's academic courses, newspapers threw their support to the establishment of a comprehensive vocational program. The shift in editorial attitude to an emphasis on industrial training became evident around 1905. In the transition period, several newspapers cautioned against overspecialization and the neglect of general education. Principal concern was expressed for the occupational training of children who had left school between the ages of fourteen and sixteen.

The pace set by the high school in developing vocational training was unsatisfactory to the newspapers, which expected an immediate change in educational policy. The best facilities for industrial training were still found in private trade schools. The domination in the high school of college-preparatory courses annoyed the press and was probably responsible for the enthusiastic editorial support given to the German plan of separate vocational schools. Prior to World War I, business and industry, supported by the press, attempted unsuccessfully to secure legislative sanction for a tax-supported independent system of public vocational schools. Only one Chicago newspaper favored a unified school system to combine academic and vocational courses. Organized labor opposed the proposed system of vocational schools as discriminatory against the working classes, since the curriculum was to be divorced from that of the academic high school. Moreover, labor suspected industry of attempting to utilize the

schools to create a large reserve of skilled workers in order to reduce wages.

The controversy over college-preparatory versus vocational courses, which lasted five years, and the increasing importance of skilled manpower, brought into focus during World War I, were instrumental in the expansion of the high-school curriculum. The implementation of the high-school function, advocated by the newspapers, to provide attractive, enriched, and practical courses for the non-college-bound students was now a reality.

CONCLUSION

Editorial treatment of public education in Chicago indicated a widespread interest in the problems of educational reconstruction during the thirty years from 1890 to 1920. As the principal agency of mass communication, the press played a significant role in the dissemination of information on the many issues confronting the search for a more comprehensive function of education in the American social order. Among the Chicago papers which showed the most sustained interest in public school progress were the *Tribune* and the *Daily News*, both powerful business institutions which have outlived numerous competitors.

To a considerable extent, editorial leadership appeared to reflect the attitudes of community forces controlling school policy. However, the self-interest of the press, demonstrated by its tendency to cling to partisan policies and an exhibited pro-business and

anti-labor bias, deprived the public schools of full support on crucial issues. The newspapers' biased, off-hand generalizations often misinterpreted the purposes of professional educators and school boards. Nevertheless, the editorial alertness to political interference in school administration represented a contribution to the advance of public education in Chicago.

The findings of this historical survey of the attention given to education by the newspapers in our second city are undoubtedly similar to the findings that would be disclosed by surveys in other cities of the nation during the same period. Consequently the survey reveals the important educational issues of the decades 1890-1920 and the reactions of the press to the problems. In general, the issues discussed during the period under consideration—issues concerned with school support, school administration, and the curriculum—are those that

are frequently discussed today. This fact should give heart to educators, since our critics are constantly pointing with nostalgia to the schools of an earlier day, which, they seem to think, operated with fewer difficulties and provided children with more effective schooling.

No doubt, much adverse criticism of school policies by the newspapers could have been avoided—and could be avoided today—if a closer relation existed between the school and the press. Still, the unsolicited press criticism presented an opportunity for public examination and evaluation of major developments in the public school system. School administrators should be alert to the values of such discussion and collaborate with the press, and with other media of communication, to the end that the citizens may have all the information needed to enable them to make decisions on policy.

CONTINUED STUDY OF COLLEGE-ENTRANCE CREDITS OF GRADUATES OF SOUTH DAKOTA HIGH SCHOOLS

CLINTON R. WISEMAN

South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts



THIS REPORT adds data for 1952-53 to the earlier report¹ on college-entrance credits in science and mathematics offered by students entering the South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts in 1922-23, 1932-33, and 1942-43. Information on the number of units of science and mathematics offered; the differences between the offerings of men and of women; the differences in offerings of students from small, medium-sized, and large high schools; and the course changes taking place in these areas were obtained from the transcripts of high-school work done by Freshman students entering South Dakota State College. The samples included approximately twice as many women as men. Because they are closely related to science, courses in agriculture, shop, and home economics were also investigated.

CREDITS OFFERED IN SCIENCE

All science.—In 1952-53, the average student entering the college pre-

sented 2.54 units of high-school science. This is one-third of a unit more than students presented ten years earlier. During each of the four periods investigated, the men have presented more units of science than have the women; however, both men and women showed increases in the number of science credits offered in 1952-53.

The increases noted in science offerings, while evident in transcripts of students from high schools of all sizes, were largest among students from the medium-sized schools. In the 1952-53 group, 60 per cent of the men and 23 per cent of the women presented three or more units of science. Practically all the science credits offered were in the form of full units.

General science.—In 1952-53, general science as college-entrance credit declined from the preceding decade. Apparently, in some schools general science is moving back into the upper elementary-school grades and into junior high school, and biology is becoming the first required science in high school, usually in Grade X. Our latest tabulation showed that 81.5 per cent of the students brought in credits in general science and 82.6 per cent pre-

¹ Clinton R. Wiseman, "College-Entrance Credits of Graduates of South Dakota High Schools," *School Review*, LV (January, 1947), 38-44.

sented credits in biology. Back in 1922-23, only 12.6 per cent of our students offered biology credits.

Special fields.—Physics has again declined, as it had for the preceding three decades; a low of 35 per cent of the students offered credits in physics in 1952-53. Chemistry has progressively increased until now nearly 49 per cent of the students presented chemistry credits. Botany, zoölogy, and physiography all loomed large in the picture back in 1922, were in strong decline and practically out in 1942, and showed no new life in 1952. Somewhat of a newcomer on the science scene is advanced science, presumably as advanced biology or fused chemistry and physics for Grades XI and XII. This trend is not strong yet but seems to be in evidence.

Science-related courses.—The transcripts were also checked to determine the extent to which students had taken courses in agriculture, shopwork, and home economics and particularly to note any tendency toward substituting these, as related science, for regular science courses.

For the 1952-53 period, approximately 25 per cent of the men had accumulated agriculture credits; 50 per cent of the men had taken some shopwork and drawing; and 50 per cent of the women had taken home economics in high school. The men with agriculture credit had, on the average, just about as much credit in agriculture as in science, but this group offered approximately as many credits in science as did the men who presented no agri-

culture credits. Likewise, the men who had taken shop credit in high school had taken, on the average, almost identically the same amount of science credits as had their non-shop fellows, namely, 2.7 units of science credit. No tendency was shown for men to substitute either agriculture or shopwork for regular science courses.

However, the young women who had homemaking in high school presented a different pattern. As noted above, on the average, the young women in the group offered somewhat less high-school science than did the men. It may be further noted that the half of the young women who took homemaking in high school had, on the average, approximately one-half unit less of science credit than did the women who did not present homemaking credit; the former had substituted some of the homemaking for the regular science credits.

CREDITS OFFERED IN MATHEMATICS

All mathematics courses.—The average number of units of mathematics offered for college entrance rose from 1.75 units in 1942-43 to 1.95 units for the 1952-53 group. The students from the small and the medium-sized high schools offered from 0.3 to 0.4 units more mathematics than had their predecessors of ten years earlier.

During the four periods studied, the men have consistently offered more mathematics as entrance credit than have the women. In 1952-53, 40 per cent of the men had some higher

mathematics beyond algebra and geometry as contrasted with but 13 per cent of the women having some advanced mathematics.

Specific courses.—In studying the various mathematics courses taken, it was found that general mathematics has shown no such popularity as has general science as a high-school subject of study. In fact, scarcely more than 2 per cent of these students offered general mathematics as entrance credit. Algebra still holds sway as the prime mathematics course, with more than 95 per cent of these students offering it as entrance credit over the four periods here considered. Geometry holds up well, approximately 75 per cent of the students having offered credit in this subject in each of the past two periods. Both algebra and geometry are full-unit credits.

Advanced mathematics, such as advanced algebra, solid geometry, and trigonometry are largely half-credit units. However, advanced algebra is moving over to a full-unit subject; half of the 1952-53 offerings were for a full unit. Of these advanced courses, advanced algebra exceeds all the others in frequency. Solid geometry has progressively declined over the

period; 34 per cent of the students offered credit in this subject in 1922-23 compared with 8 per cent in 1952-53. The students seem to be giving extra time to advanced algebra and taking more courses in trigonometry instead of studying solid geometry. A newer mathematics course labeled "advanced mathematics" seems to be getting a nice start in the last period.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

Increasing amounts of college-entrance credits in science and mathematics are being offered by Freshmen entering South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. This increase may indicate that the high-school students entering our particular college are being better advised as to what entrance credits will serve them best in college. Doubtless, it is also evidence that the availability of high-school courses in science and mathematics is increasing. This trend at least partially refutes those critics of present day high-school education who maintain that interest in the more academic subjects, as reflected by the number of courses offered in these subjects and by enrolment in these courses, is declining.

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SELECTED REFERENCES ON EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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THE following bibliography covers the period from January, 1953, to December, 1953. The references to printed materials were furnished by J. W. Getzels. The references to films were provided by Kenneth D. Norberg.

GENERAL AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSIONS

481. BOWMAN, PAUL H.; DIETERICH, WILLIAM J.; DEHAAN, ROBERT F.; HACKAMACK, HENRY; HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J.; JOHNSON, LAVONA A.; KING, ROBERT D.; and LITTLE, LESTER O. *Studying Children and Training Counselors in a Community Program*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 78. Youth Development Series, No. 2. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. viii+136 (processed).

The second of a series of reports on the progress of a community youth development program, describing the first full year of operation. The period was devoted to studying the children and to training people in the community for work on the project. The methods, instruments, and experiences are discussed.

482. CRUZE, WENDELL W. *Adolescent Psychology and Development*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1953. Pp. xii+558.

Drawing upon clinical, cross-sectional, and longitudinal studies, this textbook aims at presenting a comprehensive picture of adolescent development for the classroom teacher.

483. JONES, ERNEST, M.D. *The Life and Work of Sigmund Freud: Vol. I, The Formative Years and the Great Discoveries, 1856-1900*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1953. Pp. xiv+428.

This is the eagerly awaited first volume of the projected three-volume definitive biography of the founder of psychoanalysis. The work provides a picture of Freud's personality and private life as well as his social background and, in many instances, a firsthand account of his great discoveries about human behavior.

484. KARPMAN, BEN (chairman); CHESS, STELLA; LURIE, LOUIS A.; SCHMIDBERG, MELITTA; and SONTAG, LESTER W. "Psychodynamics of Child Delinquency: Round Table, 1952," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIII (January, 1953), 1-69.

Social, cultural, internal psychodynamic, and purely physical approaches to the study and understanding of the problems of juvenile delinquency are presented.

485. KLUCKHOHN, CLYDE, and MURRAY, HENRY A. (editors), with the collabora-

tion of DAVID M. SCHNEIDER. *Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1953 (revised). Pp. xxvi+702.

A sourcebook of theoretical and empirical studies on personality formation. Part I presents a conception of personality. Part II deals with the determinants of personality formation. Papers on constitutional, group-membership, role, and situational determinants and the interrelations among the determinants are included. Part III considers the applications to modern problems.

486. KRUGMAN, MORRIS. "Education's Debt to Orthopsychiatry," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIII (July, 1953), 445-53.

The presidential address of the American Orthopsychiatric Association for 1953. Argues that, if there is one characteristic that distinguishes modern education from education of the past, it is the concern with the growth and development of each child. The American Orthopsychiatric Association has been one of the major forces promulgating psychiatric, psychological, and social concepts for use in the educational enterprise for the past thirty years.

487. MARTIN, WILLIAM E., and STENDLER, CELIA BURNS. *Child Development: The Process of Growing Up in Society*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953. Pp. xxii+520.

A textbook on child development, emphasizing the crucial effect of socialization. The roles of teachers, parents, peers, and community as socializing agents for the child are discussed.

488. MAYER, KURT. "The Theory of Social Classes," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Summer, 1953), 149-67.

Presents a survey of current theories of social stratification. While the paper does not deal directly with educational implications, it provides background material upon which thinking on educational problems as related to social-class structure may be based.

489. REMMERS, H. H. "Learning—What Kind of Animal?" *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIV (January, 1953), 41-49.

The presidential address before the Division on Educational Psychology of the American Psychological Association, in September, 1953. Believes that "learning theory as we now have it is a semantic misnomer—an animal with chameleon-like characteristics depending for its appearance upon where you find it." Suggests that "a cross-breeding of psychology with other disciplines" is likely to prove more fruitful.

490. SEARS, R. R.; WHITING, J. W. M.; NOWLIS, V.; and SEARS, P. S. "Some Child-rearing Antecedents of Aggression and Dependency in Young Children," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, XLVII, Second Half (May, 1953), 137-236.

Describes a pilot study of some child-rearing antecedents of dependent and aggressive behavior in preschool children. The results are examined within the framework of learning theory, with the following main conclusions: (1) Frustration and punishment are antecedents for dependency and aggression drives. (2) There are radical sex differences in the way these drives are developed. (3) There are deep and pervasive differences in maternal treatment of boys and girls after the first year of life.

491. STEPHENSON, WILLIAM. *The Study of Behavior: Q-Technique and Its Methodology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+376.

A comprehensive presentation of the theory, method, and application of Q-technique. According to the author, Q-methodology permits a long-overdue reformulation of basic conceptual approaches to the study of human behavior.

492. STOLUROW, LAWRENCE M. (editor). *Readings in Learning*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. viii+556.

A collection of papers dealing with various theories and experiments in the field of learning. The editor gives as his four primary selection criteria: (1) Did the article contribute to contemporary theory and/or problems in education? (2) Were the results generally representative of studies of this problem? (3) Were the conclusions sound? (4) Was the presentation clear? The following were considered as secondary criteria: human rather than animal studies; recent rather than earlier reports; stimulus-response rather than Gestalt conceptualizations. Included are sections on "Some Systematic Positions," "Some Conditioning Concepts and Techniques," "Motivation and Reinforcement," "Some Motor and Verbal Learning Variables," "Some Discrimination and Perceptual Learning Variables," "Educational and Social Learning," "Retention and Forgetting," and "Transfer and Related Concepts."

493. WANN, KENNETH D. "Action Research in Schools," *Review of Educational Research*, XXIII (October, 1953), 337-45.

Presents a survey of the literature dealing with action research in schools. Describes the nature of this type of research, summarizes the achievements to date, and points to its values and difficulties. A bibliography of sixty-seven items is provided.

494. WHITING, JOHN W. M., and CHILD, IRVIN L. *Child Training and Personality: A Cross-cultural Study*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1953. Pp. vi+354.

Cross-cultural investigation of the influence of culture upon personality and of personality upon culture, with special emphasis on variations in child-training practices and customary responses to illness. While psychoanalytic theory is an important source for the study as a whole, general behavior theory is used in formulating the specific hypotheses under examination.

MENTAL ABILITIES AND SKILLS

495. AUSUBEL, DAVID P.; SCHIFF, HERBERT M.; and GOLDMAN, MORTON. "Qualita-

tive Characteristics in the Learning Process Associated with Anxiety," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVIII (October, 1953), 537-47.

Qualitative changes in the learning process attributable to anxiety were studied in a group of young college students. The results were held to indicate that the high-anxiety group suffered a deficiency in improvising ability brought about by a response set to reduce anxiety by adhering to familiar and stereotyped responses in a novel learning situation.

496. BROWN, ROGER W. "A Determinant of the Relationship between Rigidity and Authoritarianism," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVIII (October, 1953), 469-76.

The intellectual rigidity associated with authoritarianism is interpreted as a kind of defensive behavior to ward off personal failure. The author suggests that in child training the combination of emphases on dependence and on competitive success and avoidance of failure will tend to produce both authoritarianism and the anxiety over achievement that motivates a defensive rigidity.

497. CHARLES, DON C. "Ability and Accomplishment of Persons Earlier Judged Mentally Deficient," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, XLVII, First Half (February, 1953), 3-71.

The purpose of this study was to secure and evaluate data on the social status and intelligence of a group of persons, first studied in 1935, who had been judged mentally deficient in elementary school. It was found that many of these children whose test scores and academic performance had suggested mental deficiency developed into self-sufficient and desirable citizens as adults.

498. GOODSTEIN, LEONARD D. "Intellectual Rigidity and Social Attitudes," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVIII (July, 1953), 345-53.

Investigated the general hypothesis that persons who are intellectually rigid will have not only more consistent but also more extreme social attitudes than persons who are nonrigid. The hypothesis was not upheld, and it was concluded that rigidity does not seem to be a useful intervening variable in discussing the relations between antecedent conditions and the consequent behavior of normal individuals.

499. GREEN, CLINTON WALLACE. "The Relationship between Intelligence as Determined by Intelligence Tests and the Ability To Learn as Determined by Performance in Learning Tests," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVII (November, 1953), 191-200.

Sought to answer the question: What is the relation between the ability to learn as determined by intelligence tests and school marks, on the one hand, and certain learning exercises, on the other? Concluded that (1) there is little relation between the ability to learn and intelligence as measured by intelligence tests; (2) low correlations between school marks and the ability to learn indicate that factors other than ability to learn operate to influence school marks.

500. HARRIS, ALBERT J., and ROSWELL, FLORENCE G. "Clinical Diagnosis of Reading Disability," *Journal of Psychology*, XXXVI (October, 1953), 323-40.

Describes the planning and conducting of a comprehensive diagnostic psychological examination in the area of reading disability. The major components are (1) intelligence, (2) personality evaluation, (3) special visual tests, (4) evaluation of reading skills. Recommendations of specific instruments and general policies are made.

501. JANIS, IRVING L., and FESHBACH, SEYMOUR. "Effects of Fear-arousing Communications," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVII (January, 1953), 78-93.

This study was concerned with the relative effectiveness of three forms of persuasion in changing attitudes and behavior, the experimental persuasion variable being intensity of fear. The main conclusion was that over-all effectiveness of a persuasive communication is reduced by the use of strong fear appeal.

502. STAYER, NANCY. "The Child's Learning Difficulty as Related to the Emotional Problems of the Mother," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIII (January, 1953), 131-41.

Work with the mothers of disturbed children who show a general learning failure reveals that these mothers use intellectual inhibitions themselves as a defense in certain critical situations. They also tend to encourage the use of intellectual inhibitions as generalized defense in their children, whom they identify as parts of themselves. The child's stupidity and consequent helplessness provide the mother with vicarious gratification of her needs and protect her from dreaded separation from the child.

INSTRUCTION AND LEARNING¹

503. BARR, ARVIL S.; BECHDOLT, BURLEY V.; GAGE, N. L.; ORLEANS, JACOB S.; PACE, C. ROBERT; REMMERS, H. H. (Chairman); and RYANS, DAVID G. "Second Report of the Committee on Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (May, 1953), 641-58.

The committee finds that, after forty years of research on teacher effectiveness, one can point to few outcomes that are helpful in teacher selection, training, or certification. The committee believes that the greatest lack in this area is a body of appropriate theory. It is recommended that an interdisciplinary committee be formed to provide a conceptual basis for

¹See also Item 283 (Schrupp and Gjerde) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1954, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

research in teacher effectiveness as a first step toward a systematic experimental attack on the problem.

504. CRANELL, C. W. "A Preliminary Attempt To Identify the Factors in Student-Instructor Evaluation," *Journal of Psychology*, XXXVI (October, 1953), 417-22.

Sought to identify the factors involved in appraisal by college students of the performance of their instructors. Three factors were found (1) course results, (2) personal interaction, and (3) effort of the instructor. A uniform instructor rating sheet was developed.

505. JACKSON, JOSEPH. "The Effect of Classroom Organization and Guidance Practice upon the Personality Adjustment and Academic Growth of Students," *Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXXXIII (September, 1953), 159-70.

Investigated the effect of the home-room plan, the block-of-time plan, the departmental plan, and some variants of these plans upon the personality of pupils. Concluded that differences in formal classroom organization are of less importance than are attitudes and efforts of the teachers.

506. JOHNSON, DONALD M., and SMITH, HENRY CLAY. *Democratic Leadership in the College Classroom*. Psychological Monographs, General and Applied, Vol. LXVII, No. 11 (Whole No. 361). Washington: American Psychological Association, 1953. Pp. 20.

This study tested hypotheses that classes under democratic leadership are more effective than lecture classes in (1) developing favorable evaluations of the class, (2) promoting acceptance of group decisions, (3) developing democratic attitudes toward group processes, and (4) improving ordinary academic achievement. The authors conclude that the most effective class is one in which the content is organized to facilitate team activities; some group reward is employed in the grading

system; and the instructor maintains a warm, objective relationship with the students, delegating considerable authority to the class.

507. SIMPSON, RAY H. *Improving Teaching-Learning Processes*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1953. Pp. x+488.

Primarily a methods book, representing the teaching-learning situation in the junior and senior high schools as involving three key processes: (1) identifying problems related to goals, (2) selecting problems upon which to work, and (3) getting possible solutions to problems being studied. A section on research evidence on new practices is included.

508. SMITH, WALTER D. "Social Attraction Patterns between Elementary-School Children and Student-Teachers: Sociometric Analysis," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIV (February, 1953), 113-25.

The nature of the social attraction and repulsion directed from 184 elementary-school children to 52 student teachers and the nature of the patterns of the social attraction and repulsion among the student teachers were studied by sociometric techniques. Among the findings were the following: (1) Over a period of three months, student teachers' acceptance by the children remained remarkably constant. (2) The acceptance of student teachers in their own groups (of student teachers) showed no significant relation to their acceptance in children's groups.

509. TABA, HILDA. "Research Oriented Programs in Intergroup Education in Schools and Colleges," *Review of Educational Research*, XXIII (October, 1953), 362-71.

Summarizes recent developments in the area of intergroup education. According to the author, these developments are characterized by an increasingly scientific orientation that attempts to apply research and experiment to guide educational practice. A bibliography of eighty-seven items is provided.

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ROLE

510. ALT, PAULINE M. "Relationship of Physique and Temperament," *School Review*, LXI (May, 1953), 267-76.

This study attempts to replicate the work of Sheldon on the relation between physique and temperament. The present technique is said to overcome the chief criticisms of the preceding work by using independent judgments for the physique and temperament phases of the study. The findings are that, at least at the adolescent level and within the limitations of the sample, the conclusions of Sheldon are largely unsupported.

511. BONNEY, MERL E., and POWELL, JOHNNY. "Differences in Social Behavior between Sociometrically High and Sociometrically Low Children," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (March, 1953), 481-95.

This study sought to determine the social behavior most important in discriminating between two groups of children contrasted on the basis of sociometric choice. Concluded that highly acceptable first-grade children differ from their unacceptable peers in the following respects: (1) they are more conforming to classroom requirements; (2) they smile more frequently; (3) they more frequently engage in voluntary group activity; (4) they make more voluntary contributions to their group; and (5) they are less likely to be alone during free play or activity periods. The importance of training children to function effectively in groups is emphasized.

512. FRIEDENBERG, EDGAR A., and ROTH, JULIUS A. *Self-perception in the University: A Study of Successful and Unsuccessful Graduate Students*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 80. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+104.

Examines the relations that successful graduate students in social science establish and maintain with their university in contrast to those established and maintained by the unsuccessful students. Sug-

gests methods by which attrition at the graduate level of training might be minimized.

513. BUSWELL, MARGARET M. "The Relationship between the Social Structure of the Classroom and the Academic Success of the Pupils," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (September, 1953), 37-52.

An investigation to determine whether children who are accepted by their peers differ in certain achievements from those who are rejected. Concluded that those who succeed in their schoolwork will also succeed in social relations with their peers.

514. DAVIE, JAMES S. "Social Class Factors and School Attendance," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Summer, 1953), 175-85.

A research report showing that there is a significant relation between the social-class position of the family and the type of education that the children receive. According to the author, the study "serves to bring into question two of America's cherished myths: those of a classless society and of equal educational opportunity for all."

515. GRONLUND, NORMAN E. "Relationship between the Sociometric Status of Pupils and Teachers' Preferences for or against Having Them in Class," *Sociometry*, XVI (May, 1953), 142-50.

Attempted to determine the relation between the sociometric status of pupils and the teachers' preference for or against having them in class. The findings reveal that there is a general tendency for teachers to prefer most the pupils who are highly chosen and to prefer least those who receive relatively few choices.

516. HOFFMAN, MARTIN L. "Some Psychodynamic Factors in Compulsive Conformity," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XLVIII (July, 1953), 383-93.

Studied the relation of conformity behavior to certain attitudinal and personalistic

variables. Found that high conformity was related to low ego strength, parental dominance, inability to tolerate impulses, strict moralism, conservative political and religious attitudes, intropunitive handling of hostility, and overconcern for the well-being of parents.

517. KAHL, JOSEPH A. "Educational and Occupational Aspirations of 'Common Man' Boys," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Summer, 1953), 186-203.

Reports the results of a study of the social influences accounting for differences in career motivation among high-school boys of the "common man" or "working" class. Differential parental pressure appears to be crucial, and this raises the general problem faced by every classroom teacher: how to cope with the influence of parents' attitudes on the motivation of their children.

518. KIMBALL, BARBARA. "Case Studies in Educational Failure during Adolescence," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, XXIII (April, 1953), 406-15.

The problem of scholastic failure in adolescent boys is investigated by the case-study method. A poor father relationship, passivity, femininity, and inability to express negative feelings directly were among the distinctive characteristics found for these boys.

519. LOEB, MARTIN B. "Implications of Status Differentiation for Personal and Social Development," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Summer, 1953), 168-74.

Holds that there is a "core" American culture represented by middle-class values and behavior. It is this "core culture" that is taught in the schools, and it is the teacher who is the mediator between this culture and the learner. Implications of this point of view for education and child-rearing are presented.

520. MILL, CYRIL R. "Personality Patterns of Sociometrically Selected and Sociometrically Rejected Male College Stu-

dents," *Sociometry*, XVI (May, 1953), 151-67.

The purpose of the study was to compare the personalities of two groups of male college students chosen sociometrically as least and as most popular. The Rorschach test, the Thematic Apperception Test, and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory were used. Two factors of primary importance for interpersonal relations were identified: (1) the degree to which conflict or anxiety has pervaded the personality structure and (2) the methods adopted by the individual to handle the conflict or defend himself against the anxiety.

FILMS

The following list of selected instructional motion pictures is restricted to recent 16mm films. All listings are sound films unless otherwise indicated. Items 522-26 make up the "Adolescent Development Series," produced by Crawley Films, Ottawa, Canada, and are to be used as correlated material with the textbook *Adolescent Development* by Elizabeth Hurlock (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949).

McGRAW-HILL BOOK CO., INC., TEXT-FILMS,
NEW YORK

521. *Shyness*. 23 minutes, black and white, 1953.

This film was produced by the National Film Board of Canada for the Mental Health Division, Department of National Health and Welfare. A study of three children reveals different patterns of shyness and suggests that the severity of the problem, as well as the causes, may vary markedly from one individual to another. The excessive demands of parents are considered as a factor sometimes involved in shyness. Constructive measures for dealing with the problem are suggested.

ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT SERIES

522. *Age of Turmoil*. 20 minutes, black and white, 1953.

In a series of sketches, teen-age boys and girls enact various sorts of "extreme" behavior frequently associated with adolescence. The young person of this age is depicted as someone who is absorbed in his own affairs and those of his peers. Rejection of adult interference is emphasized.

523. *The Meaning of Adolescence*. 16 minutes, black and white, 1953.

This film offers a general orientation to the meaning of adolescence and to the problems facing the adolescent in our contemporary society. In contrast to the casual and untroubled adolescence of a relatively primitive culture, the young person approaching adulthood in the modern Western world is shown in the difficult role of one who is no longer a child but who is not yet accepted as an adult. Behavior traits associated with the adolescent transition are shown, and major problems of

adjustment confronting young people of both sexes are suggested.

524. *Meeting the Needs of Adolescents*. 19 minutes, black and white, 1953.

Presents a constructive view of the means by which parents and teachers can help adolescents meet such demands as the growing needs for independence, for wholesome association with members of the opposite sex, for self-directed mental activity, and for affection and respect.

525. *Physical Aspects of Puberty*. 19 minutes, black and white, 1953.

This film deals with the physiological and the associated emotional and mental changes that occur as the young person approaches maturity.

526. *Social-Sex Attitudes in Adolescence*. 22 minutes, black and white, 1953.

Various stages in the development of the sex behavior of the individual are presented through a chronological story and flash-back device dealing with the marriage of a young couple and the prior developmental stages that led up to this event.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

GERTRUDE NOAR, *The Junior High School—Today and Tomorrow*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. x+374. \$4.75.

The purpose of this textbook is set forth in the Preface: "To provide some solutions to the problems that teachers and administrators face as they study the *why* and *how* of changing the traditional school patterns of today into the modern patterns of tomorrow" (p. vii).

An examination of the contents will show that several features combine to make the book a significant addition to the writings on the junior high school. In Part I, "Basic Concepts upon Which To Build a Functioning Junior High School," Noar relies upon the Gruhn and Douglass list of functions for the junior high school: (1) integration, (2) exploration, (3) guidance, (4) differentiation, (5) socialization, (6) articulation; and she shows that the concepts that these terms symbolize have become deeper and deeper. The author then goes on to identify the needs of youth: for affection and security, for recognition and reward, for achievement and success, and for fun and adventure. After giving attention to the role of human relations in the successful junior high school, she devotes one chapter to showing some applications of the nature of the learning process.

Part II, "Many Share the Responsibility for Creating the Program," is concerned, first, with the kind of education needed by teachers who are to be successful in the junior high school program outlined. One chapter describes the role of the principal in helping teachers to acquire the necessary teaching skills. Another notes the role of the teacher

in modernizing the junior high school. And still another deals with the multiple role of the junior high school in community relations.

Part III, "Modern Curriculum Content and Techniques," sets forth the kind of schedule and teacher-learning experiences which the author believes will give the pupil opportunities to acquire the required or necessary information, to practice the desired habits, and to develop the appreciations and attitudes which are needed by an intelligent, informed, and effective citizen.

The fourth part, "Resource Materials for the Teacher," presents (1) a glossary of terms (for example, *common learnings*, *core curriculum*); (2) outlines of resource units on juvenile delinquency, democracy, government, propaganda, human relations; and (3) outlines for unit reports on taxation, money, Mexico, travel, superstitions, etiquette, intercultural education, underdeveloped lands, housing, the Palestine problem, labor, and mental health.

The difference between the junior high school described here and the traditional junior high school is of a philosophical nature. The modern view, supported by Noar, holds that citizens and parents want today's children to come out of school with the variety of skills essential to preparation for modern life rather than the limited academic skills which were emphasized in the schools of yesterday.

EDNA LUE FURNESS

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The High School Teacher and His Job: A Symposium. Edited by FRANKLIN R. ZERAN. New York 16: Chartwell House, Inc. (280 Madison Avenue), 1953. Pp. 282.

This book is a symposium consisting of nine chapters, each written by a different individual. The chapter headings indicate the scope of the material covered: "The Job of the Teacher," "The Status and Future of Teaching as a Profession," "The Teacher and His Relations with the Faculty," "The Teacher's Role in the Guidance Program," "The Teacher and the Principal," "The Teacher and His Supervisor," "The Teacher and the Community," "The Teacher and the Co-curriculum," and "In-service Growth and Development."

Each chapter seeks to give the student in college, during his first course in secondary education, some preliminary understanding of what superior teachers do on the job and of the many problems which they inevitably must meet. A sound, common-sense philosophy is basic in each chapter. The prospective teachers are told repeatedly that teaching is complex and exacting; that it is concerned with stimulating young minds to further intellectual curiosity in the various areas of learning and with helping young people to develop constructive attitudes, well-balanced emotions, and the ability to put into useful action the learning and insight which they gain in school. Students of teaching are warned that teaching the factual subject matter of their major field is only one of their duties. The teacher's responsibility for guidance, his leadership in co-curriculum activities, his use of community resources, his serving on curriculum-improvement committees, his responsibility for teaching the skills for democratic citizenship, and his need for knowing each pupil as an individual—all are treated as important aspects of the work.

The Foreword suggests that experienced teachers, principals, and supervisors who read the book should find assistance in thinking through their relation with new teachers and with one another.

Although they are not covered in a major chapter heading, many suggestions concerning matters of school routine are given. Classroom management and discipline, how to create a wholesome learning environment, prosaic housekeeping duties, handling of records and reports, making friends with custodians and maintenance employees, and willingness to do one's part are a few examples of such routine matters.

Emphasis is placed upon the inability of college pre-service methods courses to anticipate many problems of real teaching situations. There are descriptions of methods by which school systems organize for in-service education.

One seldom reads a symposium which does not suffer from overlapping, duplication, and lack of careful planning. Perhaps, in a textbook for college students, the frequent duplication and overlapping makes for desirable emphasis. The experienced administrator, seeking to evaluate the work of teachers within his own school, will undoubtedly look first at the summary statements at the close of each chapter and then do much skipping and skimming.

This reviewer wonders whether Sophomores or Juniors in college may be a little overwhelmed by the portrayal of the hundreds of duties, responsibilities, and problems of teachers. Perhaps there could have been a little more emphasis upon the pleasures in working with young people, in seeing them grow and develop, and in feeling satisfaction when one's pupils return to tell of their success.

The problems of the beginning teacher in a three-, four-, or five-teacher school might have received more realistic treatment. Teachers who must begin teaching in small communities are likely to find many frustrations in a daily schedule of four or five preparations, lack of experienced leadership from principal and superintendent, and a public which may not believe strongly in the basic educational philosophy of this book.

We need teachers who will enter teaching really believing in the sound ideas of these

authors. A skilful college professor using this textbook should be able to supplement the material presented and develop a worth-while course for prospective teachers.

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FRANCES M. ANDREWS and JOSEPH A. LEEDER, *Guiding Junior-High-School Pupils in Music Experiences*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+372. \$4.75.

This is an unusually useful book for teachers in the critical area of the junior high school, no matter whether that area be confined to the junior high school itself or divided between the more conventional elementary-school and senior high school regions. In Grades VIII and IX particularly, where music is often a required subject, favorable and enduring attitudes toward music must be fostered, and the unfortunate consequences of apathy and even aversion toward music above the "popular" level must be thwarted and overcome.

The authors know both their music and the psychology of adolescence; their wise and sane precepts dealing with guidance in music seem to be the distillation of knowledge and experience obtained in the classroom itself. In short, though idealistic in purpose, their approach to the problems they discuss is "down to earth."

The gist of the authors' philosophy and purpose is well stated in "An Overview." According to them, the music teacher—

must reach far beyond the walls of the classroom into the everyday lives of the boys and girls he teaches, into the community and the world around them. The child is the first factor, the music is the second factor. Between stands the teacher, bringing them together. . . . Unfortunately, attitudes toward music in the classroom and music in out-of-school life are in some cases different. Boys who see no point in the classroom music program are sometimes those who scarcely

step outside the school door before the harmonica is whipped out of the hip pocket, and the reedy tune is floating back into the deserted music classroom (pp. 1-2).

To circumvent a situation like that described, the authors suggest specific materials and techniques throughout the book.

Chapter i deals with the development and function of the junior high school and with its pupils—their emotional, social, physical, and intellectual characteristics within their own particular world. Music in relation to life as the adolescent sees it is discussed in chapter ii.

Beginning with chapter iii, the role of music in the classroom is developed in seven separate chapters: the general music class (chapter iii); integration and correlation with other subjects and activities (chapter iv); the adolescent voice—its ranges, characteristics, methods of handling it, types of appropriate musical organizations, materials and methods of rehearsing (chapter v); the listening experience (chapter vi); pupil evaluation, suitable methods of marking, and testing (chapter vii); the instrument program (chapter viii); and the presentation of various teaching aids, including the utilization of radio, television, and music films (chapter ix). The final chapter is devoted to the topic of music in the school and community.

A frequent complaint by teachers in service has been that many books dealing with public school music discuss procedures that can be effectively carried out only under ideal conditions. Sometimes these books tell the prospective teacher what he should do, but they neglect to explain how to do it or to suggest devices and materials which may be utilized in the performance of his duties. This book is happily free from such shortcomings. From the wealth of suggestions abounding throughout the book, a list of ten ways to stimulate and focus attention on the listening activity is deserving of special mention. Some of these are quite ingenious and up to date, such as the "Twenty Questions" game used to identify a composition and its composer. Other aids to listening include a sug-

gested listening plan for a recording of Debussy's "The Engulfed Cathedral" and a list of materials for listening. A complete unit, "Vacation Time Travels—The Ohio and Mississippi River Area," is presented as an example of the correlation of music with other activities.

A summary is appended to each chapter, and short bibliographies appear where warranted. The English style is clear and effortless, free from educationalist jargon. Informal and sometimes amusing illustrations, the work of a high-school Junior, are numerous.

It should again be mentioned that use of the book need not be limited to teachers in junior high schools, for teachers of this age group in other school setups will benefit from its many helpful suggestions. The book is heartily recommended to the attention of teachers in fields other than music and also to administrators.

V. HOWARD TALLEY

University of Chicago



OTTO F. BOND, *The Reading Method: An Experiment in College French*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. xii+368. \$6.50.

Associated through three decades with the experimental program of teaching elementary French at the University of Chicago, Otto F. Bond speaks authoritatively of the "reading" method of second-language-teaching developed there. Teachers of language and students of educational method, history, and research will find *The Reading Method* not only an authoritative definition of the method which makes reading in the second language, from the very beginning, the foundation of other language activities (and all that this implies) but also a record of the development and evaluation of an educational concept and its concomitants.

The reader will be impressed by the documentation and the objective data presented, but he should not be discouraged by the

tables scattered throughout the text. The busy reader may wish that the tables had been titled so as to give him more adequate clues as to their origin and content, but he will always find information about the data in the text.

Behind the objective record is the story of experimentation: the formulation of questions and hypotheses; the quest for solutions to problems by trial, observation, analysis, and revision; progress toward goals in the milieu of academic, economic, and social changes; successive refinements of method and procedure; continuing evaluation of content, procedures, tests, and student achievement. Also delineated are the anticipation of needs for correlated materials suited to extensive reading and special materials for intensive reading, for library and laboratory facilities, for laboratory-type equipment as well as realia and other aids, and for adequate objective tests; the development of teaching materials and evaluative instruments to suit the method and the foundational research; professional co-operation with colleagues and co-workers throughout the world; and the realization that some problems, still unsolved, may be unsolvable.

Bond rests his case for the "reading" method of teaching a second language on objective evidence. He cautions the reader about making unjustifiable comparisons or unfounded generalizations from data presented. There is evidence, however, that the student's objective of reading competency in a second language is economically realized by the "reading" method, with a bonus of cultural knowledge and pleasure in reading the foreign language; that teaching method and academic policy can, together, considerably reduce academic wastage; that individual accomplishments of students may far exceed expectations; and that, with the "reading" method, average performance at the end of one year's study of a language is well above norms on standardized tests.

The succinct statement of the method embodied in the "Syllabus of 1941" is repro-

duced in the book. Readers of earlier chapters will recognize the surviving essence of the "Basic Outline of 1924" and will observe, with interest, the clarification of philosophy and stabilization of structure wrought in the meantime. One can be sure, however, that no rigidity of finality is implied in any syllabus and that shifts of sequence and emphasis are inevitable in the teaching process. It follows that the "reading" method should be adapted to any local situation, with care that consideration is given to the characteristics and objectives of student personnel; to academic policy; and to the qualifications of the staff, both as to comprehension of the method itself and ability to modify the program to meet special needs without sacrificing the goal.

Teachers of language, in both secondary schools and colleges, heeding Bond's closing remarks, may well clarify their own objectives and prepare to teach efficiently and effectively, whether they are limited to the reading goal or are incorporating the reading goal with other objectives. Industrious and creative teachers will continue to find experimentation rewarding.

FRANCIS F. POWERS

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University of Washington



DOROTHY W. BARUCH, *How To Live with Your Teen-Ager*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. 262+xiv. \$3.75.

Many books and shorter works have been written about the adolescent, but *How To Live with Your Teen-Ager* is refreshingly different. Unlike the studies showing measurement of scholastic aptitude, length of bones, and weight at different hours of the day, this study emphasizes the need for understanding the feelings of the teen-ager and the feelings of parents and other adults in helping the teen-ager to grow into the best person he can possibly be. Baruch gives parents a new un-

derstanding of young people and takes some of the worry and perplexity out of life with teen-agers.

The contents of this book are divided into three parts. Part I, "Toward Better Understanding," presents a set of suggestions for parents to follow in dealing with their own feelings and those of the adolescent. Chapters with such intriguing titles as "You Needn't Be at Cross-Purposes," "The Strivings That Drive Him," and "He Doesn't Have To Obey That Impulse" are included. Baruch helps parents recall and analyze their own feelings toward their bodies, their parents, and sex, thus enabling them to guide the adolescent better. Since *feeling* a thing does not necessarily mean *doing* a thing, the author points out that, to control his behavior, the parent as well as the adolescent needs to face his feelings. The author believes that parents, while remaining sympathetically acceptant of the adolescent's *feelings*, should deal firmly and realistically with controls that are needed concerning his *acts*.

The four chapters in Part II center in the teen-ager's craving for a "new deal" in sex education, with clear details concerning the facts of life. To do a good job with the teen-ager's sex education, adults need to understand more about the fantasies he has had in the past or what he has made of his actual experiences. Perhaps the most matter-of-fact approach to sex education for parents and counselors is found in chapter ix, "Putting In What's Been Left Out of Sex Education." Here the author advocates talking whatever language is most familiar to the adolescent in discussing his sex problems with him, rather than using scientific language. Using familiar language can also be an aid in getting rid of the teen-ager's old hostilities concerning past inadequate attention to his sex education. Baruch points out that sexual urges are not only biological but also emotional, in that they may be used to "satisfy a too-little-satisfied sense of achievement, to prove one is liked when one feels one isn't, and to gain comforting closeness one feels

one lacks" (p. 166). She outlines a whole new approach based on what the teen-ager *himself* is seeking to know and on the questions he most frequently asks.

Part III, "Toward Growing Independence," takes up the matter of big responsibilities at home and emotional education at school. By means of examples the author shows how the adolescents will accept the responsibility of home chores with good grace and even put the creative urge to use in the home in desirable ways. Concerning emotional education, Baruch states that a widespread program in the schools can do boundless good. She emphasizes that parents check to see that teachers are interested not only in what they teach but also in the people whom they teach.

How To Live with Your Teen-Ager is a book which is of value not only for parents but for pre-service and in-service teachers of adolescents. Reading it would help adults to understand their own reactions to adolescent behavior and to understand why the adoles-

cent behaves as he does. The guidance counselor would profit from reading this book by gaining insight into some of the home problems of adolescents as he tries to understand the teen-ager's feelings toward school problems. In fact, any individual or group working with adolescents could better understand the problems of youth by becoming familiar with the material in this book.

This is no didactic volume of *do's* and *don'ts* but a practical blueprint for happier family living. The book is illustrated throughout with pertinent case histories and revealing anecdotes taken from real life. Baruch shows that living with a teen-ager does not mean living *for* him. She is not of the "give-the-child-his-own-bent" school. Rather, she points to the importance of guidance and discipline in insuring the growth of independence in the adolescent that will mark him as a mature adult.

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